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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

AT THE

SEVENTEENTH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN BALTIMORE, MD.,
MAY 14-21, 1890.

EDITED BY
ISABEL C. BARROWS,
Official Reporter of the Conference.

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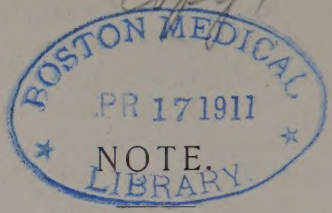

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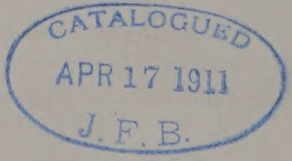

PREFACE.

THE Seventeenth Conference of Charities and Correction, held in Baltimore, Md., May 14 to 21, 1890, was characterized rather by the number and length of the papers presented than by the amount of discussion. Owing to this fact, several papers have necessarily been omitted, and others have been reduced as much as was consistent with the subjects treated. The paper by F. H. Wines, on "State Boards of Charities," and that by Mrs. C. R. Lowell, on "The Economic and Moral Effects of Public Outdoor Relief," were considered so valuable by the Conference that they have been stereotyped, and pamphlet copies of them may be ordered of the editor. The book is marked by several other noteworthy contributions, among them one by Dr. I. N. Kerlin, on "The Moral Imbecile," one by Dr. Richard Gundry, on "The Care and Treatment of the Insane," and one by H. F. Hatch, on "Prison Discipline." A large amount of space is given to several well-considered papers on "Training-schools for Nurses," with one on the necessity for a post-graduate school for such instruction. Another chapter takes up the subject of "Hospitals" in a series of papers of much value. The section on Charity Organization includes interesting statements of the value of such organization, as illustrated in emergencies like the Johnstown flood, the Lynn fire, and the Louisville tornado. In brief, this volume of Proceedings is well worthy the attention of students of charity and reform.

The eighteenth session of the Conference will be held in Indianapolis in the summer of 1891. The president for the year is Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch, of Indianapolis. The names of the other officers and members of committees will be found on pages ix to xii.

BOSTON, MASS., September, 1890.

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INTRODUCTORY ADDRESSES.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY HON. ROBERT C. DAVIDSON, MAYOR OF BALTIMORE.

It gives me great satisfaction, ladies and gentlemen, to be able to welcome, on behalf of the people of this city, so large a body of persons from every quarter of our land who are giving up some part, at least, of their time to works of mercy and charity. We welcome you, therefore, most cordially, as worthy of the best rites even of Baltimore's proverbial hospitality. It gives me pride also, gentlemen, that I can truthfully say that I welcome you to a city so peaceful and orderly as our own, where you can calmly consider the serious problems to be submitted to you without fear of molestation or discourtesy; that I can welcome you to a community which is no laggard behind others in the provision which it makes for the deserving poor and suffering; that you will find here asylums, hospitals, and retreats of all kinds, conducted, as we believe, upon principles at the same time careful and liberal; that the citizens of Baltimore, though an intelligent, are not a conceited or supersensitive people, and that they will be ready to avail themselves promptly of any valuable suggestions which they may obtain from the results of your investigations and discussions.

I take the opportunity of expressing to you the great interest which is felt in this city in the work in which you are engaged, in the line of good order and charity, which must ever go, hand in hand; and of the appreciation of the value of the sacrifice of time, and thought, which you are freely making for the benefit of your fellow-men, merely from your love of them.

The subjects of your deliberations are the most serious in which man can engage, short of the portals of Eternity. They press upon our attention unceasingly, often painfully, sometimes horribly.

Though these subjects are as old, some of them, as our fallen humanity, it is only within a period quite recent that they have been made the ground of earnest and serious attention, and the world has yet much to learn with regard to them.

Simple as it seems, the world has not yet fully learned the simplest truth of all,— that *that* is not true charity which terminates in sentiment merely, and that there is more merit in a gift even of a cup of cold water, given with intelligence, discrimination, and love, than in much profuse largess unaccompanied by kindness and courtesy.

Surely, there can be in no domain of human thought a better or worthier field for mutual aid than in these subjects.

I congratulate, you then, that you are here assembled, to lay mind beside mind, to compare your experiences in the various branches of charities and correction in which you have been engaged, and to evolve from them some common systems of action for the general benefit of your country.

We know in practice how useless it is for the most careful husbandman to rid his own lands of noxious weeds, if those of more careless neighbors are to be overrun with harmful seedlings. So, I must be my brother's keeper, whether I will or not; and by God's help, therefore, let me try to be a just and kind one. I pray God, therefore, to shed his wisdom on your deliberations; and once again I cordially bid you welcome to our city.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY CHARLES J. BONAPARTE, ESQ.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference,— It is a well-established and, as I believe, salutary principle of our American polity to reduce to a minimum the interference of the State. Of course, we must have *some* government. While there are thieves and murderers (and, notwithstanding all the good this Conference may do, I fear there will be thieves and murderers during all of *our* day at least), we must have policemen to catch them, and jails to put them in, and courts to acquit them, and taxes to pay for all these blessings, and collectors to get the taxes, and treasurers to take care of them, and attorneys-general to prosecute the treasurers when these make away with the chink. After what we have just heard, it would be ungracious, as

well as unreasonable, to pretend that we could dispense with mayors; and other public functionaries may be equally necessary to our safety and comfort, if less qualified to promote our pleasure. But, craving the pardon of any present whose feelings I may hurt by so saying, I consider these officers and institutions to partake of the nature of necessary evils. They fulfil functions which fall to the State because no other agency can assume them; and, whenever the duty to be discharged lies within the debatable border-land separating the provinces of the State and of private enterprise, a presumption arises that it should be intrusted to the latter. And to recognize this presumption is a characteristic feature of healthy public opinion among us. The typical American, hard-headed and sound-hearted, when he thinks the world is not in one way or another what it ought to be, does not call for the government as a *deus ex machina* to set things right. He seeks out others like-minded with himself, and founds his charity organization society or his reform school or his hospital or his asylum or his college, or whatever else will, to his thinking, be a step toward the millennium. He is clear in his mind that Heaven helps those (and only those) who help themselves; and, while he may see no great resemblance between the State and Heaven otherwise, in this respect he expects them to act on the same principle. Thus much that in most countries forms the allotted task of salaried public servants is done for us by volunteers, commissioned only by their zeal and rewarded only by the consciousness of doing good. And this work is not only done cheaply: it is done well. Whenever here private and public agencies compete in any form of systematic beneficence, whether it be education or reformation, the care of the sick or the distribution of alms, the former are shown by an experience well-nigh unbroken to be effective and sparing; the latter, incompetent and wasteful.

This system gives room for, and indeed depends upon, that utilization of enthusiasm which Macaulay considered the greatest strength of a strong religion. Mankind's progress is in large measure the work of cranks. Men of one idea, for whom some particular topic on which their thoughts have long run has an importance to normal minds preposterous and grotesque, who have become so one-sided as to seem intellectually distorted and unsightly, are, after all, those who cry out so long and loudly, and make themselves generally such bores, that at last they awake the world to its iniquities and its follies. Now, the State hardly knows how to make use of

cranks. Either it ties them down to an enforced idleness, in which a well-known character has no end of mischief ready for their hands, or it gives them a free rein, and with it a fair opportunity to ride promptly to the same notorious personage. Not a few who here relieve their minds by attending Conferences and reading papers might, in another country, be loading dynamite bombs or trudging toward Siberia; while, on the other hand, if the wild schemes of social regeneration to which we now listen with composure, very much as we might look calmly at a lion out of a third-story window, could ever get at all near to realization, the results would be startling enough.

> "Think of two thousand gentlemen at least,
> And each man mounted on his capering beast!"

Yes: rather think of an indefinite number of philanthropists, and each one mounted on his curvetting hobby, and with power to punish with fine and imprisonment, if not with the guillotine, anybody who didn't ride with them. If the State prevents enthusiasts from trying to make the world better, it becomes in their eyes the one hindrance to ushering in the golden age, and they become the most dangerous of conspirators. If it lends them its authority to convert their whimseys into facts of life, it creates an anarchical tyranny.

In the United States it does neither: it lets the would-be saviors of their kind try their hands at saving *ad libitum*, but at their own cost, and with no more potent sanction for the unbelieving than their arguments and eloquence. Like the Pickwick Club, it "cordially recognizes the principle of every member of . . . society defraying his own . . . expenses, and . . . sees no objection whatever to the members . . . pursuing their inquiries for any length of time they please upon the same terms." And only experience can teach the wholesome, though far from pleasant, effect upon one in love with his own visions of Utopia, when he has to hand round a subscription paper. The icy douche of sober-minded common sense with which this recalls him to the work-a-day world round about is worth no end of Socratic philosophy as an intellectual sedative. When, however, through a sort of survival of the fittest, some of the countless projects for changing the earth into a paradise, which busy brains in a free country generate every day, crowd out their less fortunate brethren in their great scramble for the people's ear and the people's pin-money, and by this very process show that they have in them some

measure of real promise, the State allows the successful promoters at their own cost to do some part of its work for it far better than it would do this itself. In the generous competition to find means to do good, it gives all comers a fair field and no favor, and rewards the victors by employing them without pay.

When, therefore, in one of these Conferences those meet for counsel who throughout the land are laboring in one or another phase of the general effort to benefit humanity, the occasion is one of real public interest. It is not a mere commercial advertisement, not a gathering for simple amusement or empty display. Such a conference deals with problems whose solution vitally concerns society, and deals with them, as alone they can be dealt with fruitfully, by candid and thoughtful discussion on the part of those whom experience and study have caused to know whereof they speak.

I welcome you, then, ladies and gentlemen, to your labors in the name of all those who in this community take a serious and an intelligent interest in the welfare of their fellow-men. Profoundly gratified that Baltimore has been chosen as your place of meeting, we trust that experience may justify this choice to your own mind, and that we may prove worthy of so great a privilege by showing that we recognize its value.

We expect to see the instrumentalities already in our midst designed to relieve distress, promote reformation, and convert into sources of benefit to the community those elements which now impair or threaten its welfare, stimulated to an increased usefulness by your friendly criticism, and supplemented by others due to the suggestions of your experience and discretion; and we confidently hope that to every one struggling with the perplexities and dangers which beset modern society your meeting will bring light, strength, and courage.

ADDRESS OF OSCAR C. McCULLOCH.

Mr. Mayor, Gentlemen of the Local Committee, Citizens of Baltimore, — I think I may quote a very well-known hymn here,— "This is the place we long have sought." I think I may add to that that two years ago a great many of us "mourned because we found it not," and that it is with peculiar pleasure that the invitation so kindly extended to us by our friend, Mr. Glenn, has now its opportunity of acceptance. The proverbial hospitality of Baltimore to

which the mayor has alluded is well known to us who are students of history, as all of us are. We know that, with the coming of that distinguished nobleman whose name you bear, a hospitality was extended to all faiths and forms, and to all kinds and conditions of men, the tradition of which you have kept up to this very hour. We, therefore, had every reason to expect the gracious hospitality and courtesy which those who are of the order of the *noblesse oblige* can give.

The mayor, in his opening words, has told you that the charity which is best is that which is most thoughtful and most religious. Charity is not a mere sentiment, a good wish, or a good will: it is the serious and determined effort to do as we would be done by. And in this land, where there are said to be but three generations *from* shirt-sleeves *to* shirt-sleeves, it may well become us, whose children may some time need help, to extend help to others. We ought to put ourselves into the possible place, then, of those, our descendants, who at some time may be thankful that a more thoughtful and kindly charity had been learned by us, their ancestors.

I think it is true that those of us who have come here have looked forward to this meeting with great pleasure. It is a unique gathering, the only gathering that I know of in the United States where, men and women meeting for serious business, there is absolutely no discussion of theology or politics. It may be a strange thing for you to meet such a body. We shall only hope that its unusualness and its very strangeness may not make it unwelcome. We are concerned with the problems of human suffering, trouble, and misery. We seek to meet these problems in that spirit of hope and humanity which has characterized all our eighteen centuries of Christianity. We have freely received from the centuries: we hope freely to give.

These men and women who are here to-day have been finely characterized by Mr. Bonaparte in his excellent address. That address, it seems to me, ought to be offered to the *North American Review*, that *omnium gatherum* of all shades of opinion, and to be entitled "The Function of Cranks in this World." He has made the noblest plea for cranks that I have ever heard. From the old oaken bucket which you used to draw up from the well to the last movements of the great electrical machine, everything that goes at all goes by cranks. We do not, then, dislike the name. We call your attention to the fact, however, that it is a crank with a set motion, with its eccentrics largely under control. All the power is brought to bear upon the one thing, the uplift of those that are lowest.

A keen-eyed and bright-faced lady at the hotel at which some of us are guests said that she would like to pick out the ministers here. There is an old-time thought that charity belongs to ministers and women. Her success was not so great as I think she hoped. Her eye first lighted on the tall form of Dr. Hoyt, and she said that he was a Presbyterian minister. The doctor simply replied, "I have been practising medicine since I was twenty-one." She then said that I myself was a Methodist minister. In fact we are mostly busy and business men and women, who are engaged in this work for the love of it, and who are enjoying their reward in the consciousness of doing what good they can with as little harm as possible,— who come mostly at their own expense to try to straighten out some of the crookedness in society, and to uplift some of the things fallen and broken. In this spirit we come, the spirit of humanity, the most ancient spirit that there is in this world this side of God. Older than sects, older than creeds, older than all political parties is man, and that ancient word which put man into his brother's keeping. Differing though we do in faith, we meet in the spirit of Jesus the Christ. We are come to see what men and women can do and ought to do to make life easier for our brother, to remove some obstructions from the way of little children, to bring soothing to the mind that wanders.

I thank you very heartily for the words of welcome extended, and the gracious hospitality that has been offered to us.

ADDRESS OF REV. MYRON W. REED, OF COLORADO.

Mr. Reed was introduced by the chairman of the Local Committee in the following words: "The duty rests upon me of calling upon another speaker, one upon whose tongue I have been informed has fallen the silver of the mountains among which he dwells, and whose intellect has taken the brilliancy of the quartz in which it is concealed. I call upon Rev. Myron W. Reed."

Mr. Reed.— Ladies and gentlemen, my introduction reminds me of an incident that occurred in Ireland. I went to visit Blarney Castle direct from Queenstown; and I sat on a rock on one side, while the lady who presides over the castle sat on another, and we talked together an hour. Then I said "I must go and kiss the blarney stone"; and she replied, "You do not need to."

I have been travelling with three friends, four of us altogether,

more than sixty hours to reach Baltimore, partly on my own account to meet this convention, and partly that I might see once more the citizens of Baltimore. At home, I have the honor of being President of Associated Charities, in which are met together Roman Catholics, Hebrews, and Protestants. Every society in that association depends upon the public for its support. So far as I know, it is the only city in the whole world that has perfectly combined all these elements. For that reason I liked to journey to Baltimore, as has been hinted, because Maryland was the first to pass an Act of Toleration. I labor in hope, because I see that things are mending. I have not seen a beggar on the streets of my city for several months. He knows where to go, and he goes. Perhaps some of you think of this world as getting worse and worse: I think of it as getting better and better. This, I believe, is the best day that the sun ever shone on. I remember that Henry Ward Beecher wrote a novel called "Norwood." He was a great preacher, but he was not a great novelist. He crowded the stage with his characters, some thirty or forty in all. In his last chapter, he did not know what to do with them; and so he invented the battle of Gettysburg. In that battle, all the lovers were killed, and all the sweethearts died of grief. The stage was swept, and the book closed.

Daniel O'Connell was once reading one of the works of Dickens — "Dombey and Son" — which was issued in monthly instalments. At last he came to the monthly instalment in which little Paul died,— the little boy that you remember warming his thin hands and asking his father, "What is money, and what can money do?" That little child was dead, and Daniel threw down that instalment of the story, and said, "Charles Dickens, you spalpeen, you had not genius enough to keep that little boy alive."

Now, we all of us worship God who has created the world and who has a plan and a purpose in the life of every man, woman, and child, who watches, as we are told, over the death-bed of a sparrow. We have confidence in his genius that he can keep the world alive, and in that confidence and hope and faith we meet together to lighten a little, and lift a little, the burden of this world; and we will meet together and work together until this old earth of ours shall smile a friendly island in a Pacific sea.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

BY DR. A. G. BYERS.

Within recent years, a distinguished lady began a lecture before a San Francisco audience by asking, with the utmost solemnity, "Why was I born?" to which there came the quick response from a *gamin* in the gallery, "I give it up." If this question were meant to express dissatisfaction with an event over which the lady had no control, its absurdity would be apparent. If, however, the lady was in pursuit of information, no better method could have been employed.

When the mind is in ignorance or doubt, and knowledge is to be attained and information diffused, there is no better method than to question experience. This will be apparent if you will reflect that our best knowledge is acquired in this way. Questions that baffle the profoundest wisdom are chirped from the cradle. They are formulated in our schools, constituting the perplexities of our youth. They are found in the soliloquies of Shakspere and in Mother Goose's Melodies. The highest and most impressive example of them is derived from the world's great Teacher, who first attracted public attention when at an early age he was found sitting in the midst of the doctors, "both hearing them and asking them questions."

The object of this Conference is to ask questions and obtain information respecting benevolent, charitable, penal, and reformatory work, their aim and methods of work, how far they have succeeded, how far they have come short of the ideals they aimed at, and the reason for this want of success.

The responses to these questions it will endeavor to disseminate to the general public by discussions and through the press.

The Conference of Charities and Correction has no legislative or executive powers. It does not formally express any united opinion upon the subjects brought under investigation. It is content to evoke the fullest discussion and light from every quarter that can bear upon it. No compensation is derived from its service, and no motive can be assigned for its existence beyond a philanthropic desire to help humanity.

Political organizations, in the respective localities from which you come, attach but little importance to your presence or service in this

field of duty. Why you should devote time, money, earnest, sympathizing care for those who have little present appreciation of your service, or from whom no future reward may be expected, is a dark problem to the average politician, who has neither time nor inclination for its solution. The politician is always a very busy body,— if in office, busy to retain it; if out of office, scheming to get into it,— so that he may be pardoned for indifference to social amenities that do not lie immediately in the path of partisan preferment.

If we directed the question to ecclesiastical organizations, the result would be but little different; for the modern Church is occupied with the discussion of beliefs, with great projects for captivating the eye and the ear of the world, with diligent effort and liberal contributions for entering the city of the Samaritans and for going into the way of the Gentiles rather than for beginning at home. The utmost ambition is manifested to secure popular preaching; but comparatively little attention is given to healing the sick, cleansing the lepers, raising the dead, or casting out devils.

There is an exception to this rule, if applied to far-away conditions of human degradation and suffering. India is to-day attracting far more attention than Indiana; and yet investigations made and reported to the Conference within the past three years by Mr. McCulloch indicate conditions of social degradation and human depravity that could scarcely be surpassed in pagan lands or among savage tribes. I trust I shall not be understood as representing Indiana as worse than other communities. The reference is made simply because the facts had been ascertained and set forth.

It may be possible that these moral and social conditions, when seen, baffle hope. Shorn of the power of miracles with which the early Church was invested, modern Christianity hesitates to encounter a failure that might discredit its faith. Is it not true, however, that the Christian Church is possessed of material resources, which, if applied to the amelioration of human suffering, beginning at home where results can be seen, would produce such effects that moral convictions of gospel truth would be wrought beyond that which miracles could accomplish? Such thoughts as these sound like inveighing against the Church. Let me entreat of you to put such thought far from you. Forms and creeds and ceremonies have always been grounds for contention or subjects of criticism; but against the spirit of the gospel constituting the very soul of the Church no argument can be framed. This spirit as inculcated by

Jesus Christ in the inimitable story of the good Samaritan must commend itself to the conscience of the world. It is the practical recognition of this spirit that has brought together the Conference, representing all the varying creeds and diverse beliefs,— every political party, social order, and individual benevolence,— and which enables them all to go forward with its work without discord of any kind, at any time. It may seem Pharisaical to say that this spirit, or something akin to it, actuates this Conference. Be this as it may, it will be difficult otherwise to account for the harmony of sentiment, for the fraternal regard, active co-operation, and unity of purpose that have characterized the organization from the beginning until to-day. Here we meet Jew and Gentile, Catholic and Protestant, High Churchman, Low Churchman, and no Churchman, Democrats, Republicans, and Mugwumps, the laborer and the capitalist, with complete good fellowship. It was said at the close of one meeting of the Conference whose session had been graced by ministers of various denominations, including three bishops of one denomination, that "we had been together an entire week without a jar!"

The following photograph of the Conference was displayed at the last session held in San Francisco. At the closing service, Rev. Dr. Stebbins said: "Let me speak of you just as I feel. As I have sat and looked at your faces, I have said to myself that I saw a light reflected from above, a look of benevolence, of wisdom, and of chastened experience; and, amid all these sorrowful themes that you have discussed, I have seen the play of wit and mirth and fancy such as only truly good men can enjoy. Let me speak of one of your number as he has impressed me, your friend and companion from Baltimore. You have noticed that, as he walked to and fro in this hall, a young man of gentle manners has put his own hands in the older man's hands and guided him. If the light of day is quenched upon his eyes, we surely have seen, and we know, that the light *within* shines with exceeding beauty."

But allow me to turn your attention briefly to the work marked out for the present session. The various topics in the regular order of exercises have been committed to the hands of appropriate committees during the period intervening between the last session of the Conference, eight months ago, and to-day. The reports of these committees will no doubt embody the latest information on their respective subjects.

In regard to the Reports from States, there has been no lack of

effort upon the part of the committee; but it is to be regretted that too meagre results have been obtained. That some means for obtaining more complete and accurate statistical information from States should be devised will be apparent, and this Conference may do well to give the subject special attention.

The report of the Committee on Public Indoor and Outdoor Relief will be of special interest as affecting every community, representing States, counties, and municipalities. To those familiar with the subject, it will be apparent that important progress and practical reforms in relation to these forms of public relief have been instituted, with considerable economic and humane results.

The subject of Juvenile Delinquents, involving social problems whose solution is attended with many perplexities, will be made attractive as coming from those having large experience in that line of reformatory work.

The subject of Immigration is attracting public attention. The policy of the government as to encouraging or restricting the entrance into our country of foreigners, viewed so differently by many of our most thoughtful citizens, and the widely different social ideas relating to this subject, will no doubt develop an interesting discussion.

Charity Organization, the theme of all others calling for the best experience, the wisest counsel, and most patient investigation, will occupy the time of the Conference during the latter part of the Friday morning session, to be followed in the evening by reports, papers, and discussion of this report as tested by emergencies, with special reference to the Johnstown and Lynn disasters, to which may be added the most recent calamity at Louisville, Ky., from a destructive storm, which in a moment desolated a large portion of the city. The following extract from a letter in reference to that subject will suggest the practical bearings of this work: —

LOUISVILLE, KY., May 5, 1890.

Dear Sir,— As you are doubtless aware, our city has recently experienced a great public disaster.

By a strict adherence to charity organization principles, it has been successfully met and practically disposed of without outside help in less than sixty days. This means nothing less than a triumph for the methods and principles put forth from year to year by the National Conference of Charities, and we believe will be so appreciated by that organization. . . .

Very truly,
RANDOLPH H. BLAINE,
Pres. Louisville Charity Organization Society.

The report on Saturday morning, on Public Hospitals, will no doubt possess an interest to members of the Conference coming from other communities that could hardly have been awakened in any other locality than in this city, whose hospital accommodations comprise the most recent and capacious additions to this class of buildings, the offspring of private munificence in one case, and in others of associated effort and religious impulse. The design and equipment of these hospitals are the most modern and complete to be found anywhere in our country. Very appropriately, Schools for Nurses will follow in the order of exercises. The usual Sabbath exercises will be observed.

On Monday morning will come up the subject of State Boards of Charities, their aims and objects, their different forms of organizations in the different States where they have been instituted, what they have accomplished in giving an impetus to systematic work for reformatory, benevolent, and penal objects, and in supervising the different agencies for those purposes, giving to each the experience derived from the consideration of all. On Monday evening the subject of Dependent Children will claim attention; and, surely, nothing appeals more strongly to our sympathies as men and women and to our judgments as citizens. Nothing is more true than that as is the care of the forlorn child, so will the commonwealth reap a harvest in the future of good fruit or evil, in the carefully trained, self-reliant, valuable citizen or the neglected, vicious criminal and outcast.

On Tuesday morning the Care of the Insane will be the subject considered. The chairman of this committee has devoted a long professional life to this special practice, and may be expected to give us a report of the progress that has taken place in the care and treatment of this most afflicted class within the past few years. The Conference of Charities and Correction has contributed to this progress, not only in arousing the attention of the committee among whom they work to their claims and necessities, and familiarizing them with their history and characteristics, but also by admirable papers upon subjects connected with this work from the more prominent alienist physicians, among whom, in addition to the present committee, it may not be improper to name Drs. Godding, Chapin, Richardson, Hurd, Bancroft, and Dewey. In view of the constantly increasing demand felt everywhere for more accommodations for the insane, the report of the committee on the subject will be looked forward to as of great importance.

Scarcely less important is the consideration of the laws regulating the commitment of insane persons to hospitals and asylums in various States, so adjusting the legal procedure as to secure without undue delay the admission of those whose affliction renders such a step necessary, and at the same time affording no opportunity of accomplishing purposes of greed or malice under the guise of benevolence.

The committee upon this subject has given it their most mature consideration, and its report will embody valuable suggestions.

The report of the Committee on Prisons and Prison Discipline should, and will no doubt, receive the marked attention from the Conference which its importance demands.

The final session for reports and papers will bring to the attention of the Conference the care of the feeble-minded. The importance of training and educating (as far as they may be susceptible of education) this class of defective children need not be urged: it is abundantly justified by experience. But that provision should also be made in connection with the education of the feeble-minded for the custodial care of all idiots, male and female, adult and juvenile, is a subject that has not awakened the public attention that its importance demands. This Conference may do well, therefore, to give this subject a full and free discussion.

We have thus glanced at the programme arranged for us. The importance of the topics, whether in the light of public economy, social reforms, moral advancement, or public and individual duty, cannot be overestimated.

We have the good fortune to-night to be on historic ground, a city ranking high in its commercial importance, advanced in its industrial pursuits and its social culture, and everywhere noted as given to hospitality. Its streets and suburbs are dotted with institutions devoted to the aid of the helpless and dependent classes, to the rescue of the erring and vicious youth, to the strengthening of the sickly infant, bringing it to the pure air and sunshine of the country.

Nor are these the only evidences that the influences of wealth do not stifle those sentiments which animate the heart to noble deeds and keep alive in the people lofty aspirations. Yonder column pointing to the skies, which attracts our notice as we enter the city, shows the popular appreciation, not alone of military and civic greatness, but also of the moral rectitude, unselfish devotion to duty, and constant self-sacrifice which marked the career of George Washing-

ton. And, as its long shadow falls athwart a noble building, dedicated to learning and art, it points out another instance of patriotism in one who, far away from his native land, showed his love for it by consecrating a large part of his wealth to the benefit of his fellow citizens. Long may the Peabody Institute continue its work of higher education in art!

From the shores of the Chesapeake were wafted over the whole broad land the strains of that inspiring patriotic song, "The Star-spangled Banner," which at the time renewed hope and patriotism in hearts bowed down by failure and disaster, and cheered them to future success, and, as our national anthem, has immortalized the name of Francis S. Key!

In the institutions which bear the name of Johns Hopkins, we see the broadest foundations laid by individual munificence for structures which illustrate the noblest aims. In the one, the self-helpful are afforded the opportunity for enlarging the boundary of human knowledge while at the same time acquiring a most thorough training and education, while the other lends a helping hand to those who have fallen by the wayside, sick and wounded.

In the midst of scenes and associations such as these, there surely must come to the Conference an inspiration and strength that will lift it and carry forward the work in which we are engaged, remembering that the advancement of social order, the repression of evil,— every effort to improve the condition of the people,— constitute at once the most exalted patriotism and warmest piety. Yet in our enthusiasm let us never forget, "Except the Lord keep the city, the watchman waketh but in vain."

II.

Conference Sermon.

THE POWER OF PERSONALITY IN REDEMPTIVE WORK.

BY REV. ALEXANDER MACKAY-SMITH, D.D.

"And he went up, and lay upon the child, and put his mouth upon his mouth, and his eyes upon his eyes, and his hands upon his hands: and he stretched himself upon the child; and the flesh of the child waxed warm."—2 KINGS iv. 34.

You will recognize the text as taken from the beautiful story of the Prophet Elisha in the house of the Shunamite woman. She had shown a kind and tender hospitality to the man of God, and so, when her only child died of a sunstroke, it was to this dear and reverenced friend that she turned in the depth of her anguish. The narrative, with that mingled sublimity and simplicity found only in the Bible, tells us how the prophet sent his servant in haste to lay his staff upon the boy's face, that God might work a miracle on behalf of the poor mother by its means, and raise him from the dead. But it was in vain; the staff alone was powerless; "there was neither voice nor hearing," we are told. It was only when Elisha came in person, and when twice, mouth to mouth, eye to eye, hand to hand, in intimate contact, he brought his own vigorous body against the dead one, that the life-current began at last to flow, the lips to breathe, and the warm tints of reinfused vitality to paint the cheek of the sleeper. The child was restored once more to the mother's arms, not by the official word of the prophet, or by his kindly interest or good will expressed in sending the servant with his staff, but only by the personal presence, the loving enthusiasm of an inspired nature, strong enough and earnest enough to lay the bright eye, the eager mouth, and the warm hand of life against the moveless features and the pulseless limbs of death.

This story of Elisha is in many ways a parable both of the methods and results of much of the good work which the best men of all ages

have endeavored to do for their fellow-men. For, whether it is for the souls of others that they have labored, or for their bodies, it has been and is still the unvarying experience of all that humanity can only help humanity in the truest and most vital way by that sympathy which comes through personal contact and individual labor in time of need. We should desire no farther proof of this than to see its working in God's own methods of action. And, surely, we do find it there. For we seem to read in the Bible the acknowledgment that in no way could even he win the human soul to himself and to the love of what he loved so powerfully and thrillingly as by himself bearing his own message to the world. That is the first application of the text which I would ask you to ponder. God's felt and visible presence was needed in the world. Our Saviour's life and death was the glorious fruit of this truth. That presence of a divine revelation which exists in the conscience and soul of even the heathen and the savage; that Law of Moses given to the Jews, which taught them so much of morality and loyalty to Jehovah,— these, with all their manifold blessings, were still only like Elisha's staff sent before him in the hands of a servant,— useful in many cases, and welcome as the forerunner of something better, but powerless to awaken a dead world into spiritual life. God Incarnate was needed for that. And, when he came, it was not to write his message on the clouds and vanish. Nor, as our raw and immature human thought would have predicted, did he, as he moved, "divide the night with flying flame, or thunder on the everlasting hills." But he came to descend in person into the deepest depths of human life, to be cradled in humility and educated to toil, to take all miseries and all sufferings by the hand, to kiss the lips and meet the gaze of the world's outcast and despised, to sit by the fireside as a guest at the marriage-feast or in the house of death, to take children in his arms, to be pillowed on the hillside surrounded by the rabble, and finally to be crucified between a blasphemer and a penitent. Never was a more striking witness borne to the fact that to get at what is best in men you must be close to them and hear the beatings of their heart. And, when the hour of his departure came, even then the world was not summoned with a voice of thunder to hear the gospel which had been given, and to obey its lessons at once, without further explanation. Christ's parting words still recognize the truth that, by its very nature, humanity cannot be educated, inspired, transformed, at a word, *en masse*. The personal element of sympathy, the contact of soul with soul, the slow discipline of human

example through long ages, the individual appeal to a heart, dignified, notwithstanding all its sin, by creation in God's image, must still prevail. Jesus called his disciples to him before he went. Into their souls he had put the truth through these past years, nay, put himself, since Christianity is Christ in the heart. "Now go forth," he tells them, "and bring yourself individually to bear upon men. One by one convert the world!" "As my Father" (in the same way that my Father) "hath sent me, so I send you." Ah, what a sublime saying it was,— sublime because it trampled down the hasty, sensational, easy, human temptation to superficial and slovenly work; sublime because it consecrated forevermore that patient, self-denying, unwearied upbuilding of the soul by personal effort which our shallow Americanism despises; sublime because it recognized that in every man, however degraded, was a soul worth the trouble and time and humbling study of any Christian to win, since even God had so loved it!

We turn with this thought of our Saviour's mission and command to the world of our own day, and more especially to this great country, and find the text a parable of the Christian outlook in life, whether it be on the work of organizations or on ourselves as individuals. The commission which Jesus gave to his disciples has never been revoked. Christianity acknowledges that it is, in fact, the excuse for her existence. She is to preach the gospel of sympathy, and to make God real and near to men. No branch of the Christian communion has ever forgotten this entirely; but how many of them have forgotten the essential way in which that command is to be carried into action! And so to-day the world remains unconverted, not for lack of Christian, saintly lives, or money poured out like water, or zeal for God's work, as men understand it, but rather for want of that deep sympathy and felt brotherhood between God's children, which should be strong enough to make every professing Christian in the Church a missionary to some starved or misdirected life not far away. The churches have not succeeded in making Christ a living master and guide to the vast mass of working or ignorant men, because their members have relied too largely on agencies and agents, on machinery and money, on those many methods which may be summed up by saying that Christians have hired others to do what they shrank from doing themselves. Like Elisha, they have sent their servants on before with a staff to summon back in vain a spiritual life which only answers to the warm contact of the heart and hand.

Look at the wonderful and complex life of this city, for example, and tell me why it is that Christianity is not twice the living force for brotherhood and contentment that we find it. Are any of the conditions lacking to secure the most beautiful and heavenly results? Surely, no! There are on the lower side all the poverty and suffering, all the ignorance and rudeness, fitted to awaken the deepest pity of humanity. The muddy tides of the world's sin and misery meet in the streets of such a city as this, and throw their dark waves of brutish lives into the foul rooms of tenements and along the swarming pavements of courts and alleys. And yet upon the higher side there are intelligence, wealth, and energy, the powers of intellect to create and direct a thousand triumphs of civilization, the patience that waits, and the skill that overcomes, the gathered fruits of progress, the large and many-sided knowledge of human nature and its conditions, which does so much for self and might do more for man. Ay, and there is mingled with this, among our intelligent classes, a kindliness, a generosity, and in many hearts a desire to do right, and a zeal for Christian work, unsurpassed elsewhere. I would not underrate or undervalue it. But I would ask you to note, with all this spiritual and bodily want on the one side, and with all these powers and gifts and zeal on the other, how vast an amount of energy and money and devotion is wasted or misapplied, how the churches fail in many ways to meet the wants of that class most needing them, how deep a gulf separates the rich and the poor, and how often Christian ministrations do not inspire love, but do cause the loss of self-respect by the false methods of their kindly activities, and by their practical reversal of that grand motto of the Associated Charities of Boston, which says, "Not alms, but a friend."

Speaking from some experience gained by a few years of work as a city missionary to a tenement-house population, I would venture to say that one marked flaw in the way Christian churches are trying to carry the gospel to the poor is the lack of earnest personal interest felt in them individually by those wiser and better than they. Christianity is obliged to deal with them too much in masses. A lack of workers compels the use of machinery to take their places, just as it does in manufactures. A mechanical, indiscriminating charity is often the result, which frequently degrades, and seldom awakens real gratitude. We cultivate the easy self-indulgence of giving to the beggar on the street, and call it charity. It is not the fault of the church workers that they cannot be to five hundred families what

they might be to five,— a kind, encouraging friend, a counsellor speaking of duties toward God and man, and adapting an earnest Christian interest to the peculiar circumstances of each. But it is the grievous fault of the churches that they have not workers enough to be all this. Ah, my friends, human hearts are not like cattle,— they cannot be driven; and each one of the vast multitude of the wayward or ignorant is like the most refined among you in at least one respect, — he must be handled like an individual, reasoned with, appealed to, taken by the hand as an individual, if the germs of the higher life within him are to burst the matted soil and seek the light. The prophet must not only send his servant with his staff, he must go himself in person. Do you ask me who the prophet is? Why, you are. I fully believe the time is not far distant when every man and woman, with any moral earnestness worth the name, will take means to discover some group of souls in whom he or she can take a kindly interest, speak words of comfort in trouble, be a friend without a trace of patronage, and a brother without a thought of condescension.

The spirit of the age is a spirit which is more and more magnifying the value and dignity of the individual. It may seem so superficially, for we are given to saying that democracy hurls the brute mass against the individual. But, looking underneath that fact, we find that it is based upon the keen realization that the mass has dignity because composed of so many worthy units. And yet in how many of the units which compose our innumerable, swarming, tenement-house populations have the majority of intelligent and moral people any personal interest? And, indeed, if you leave that enthusiasm of humanity which we Christians call the spirit of Jesus out of the problem, what attraction is there to educated, bright, busy, well-to-do persons (with little leisure to enjoy even their own pleasant social surroundings) in ignorance, ugliness, unintelligence, gaunt toil, and want of all "sweetness and light"? But we ought not to leave Him out. Yet we do. We are so formed that like naturally seeks like in society, or rather each one is selfishly ambitious to be with those who are more and not less highly placed than himself. We try to build our social intimacies with an upward slant. And so among the mass of even sincere good men and women who are more or less cultivated there is, we know well enough, a shrinking from any actual experience that brings knowledge of the conditions of life among the lowest. They prefer to ignore it or to give largely to hire others

to do for them. There is no haughtiness or arrogance in their attitude, for Americans are the kindliest-natured people in the universe toward all men. We have passed away (let us pray God that it may be forever) from that feudal pride of position, that Old-World scorn of inferiors which glares down on us (as through a window) from the disdainful faces of Rembrandt's or Velasquez's portraits of Spanish and Flemish noblemen in European galleries. But Europe's wisest observers tell us that, for all that, we are rapidly reproducing their social and Christian problems here by the indifference of wealth to those who produce it, and by the reluctance of Christian disciples to warmly interest themselves with brotherly or sisterly zeal in the dry and unattractive features of life beyond and beneath them.

Great multitudes of our hand-workers to-day look on Christians as divided mainly into two classes,— the hard-hearted, or indifferent, and the sentimental, or weak. Preposterous as all this may seem to us, there is a real grievance at the basis of it. Our whole political, social, and industrial system can be vastly improved, and Christians of the well-to-do classes are not sufficiently in earnest about improving it. "Toil, Thrift, and Temperance" may be still the primary answers to these problems, but there are others only less important. Intelligent men outside the churches are eagerly discussing them; they will fill the next century with their voices and their struggles. Christian clergymen ought to be thoroughly familiar with questions discussed in every workshop and manufactory; Christian laymen ought to have some opinion, based on patient study, as to the weakness or strength of those proposed social remedies which have already commended themselves to millions of minds among the very multitudes whom we fail to reach religiously. If we do not agree with those teachers, we should surely know exactly why: if we do agree, we by that very fact open the hearts of those who hear us to other beliefs of ours which touch the condition of their souls. Indifference and ignorance are the only unpardonable excuses. Christians will never win this suffering world to Christ by taking everything in the present condition of things for granted. They must learn that, if they really believe in that brotherhood in Christ which they profess, it must make every possible cure for human distress and degradation a "burning question" for them, and cause them to be as eager to relieve the hunger and thirst of the world as to minister to their own personal needs.

But I pass on to say that, if in thus reasoning we are following the

path where a great Truth is leading us, we cannot pause here. What is true of the needs of individuals is more strikingly true of these individuals gathered into organizations. And into no sphere of our activities does the accursed spirit of formalism and indolence enter so quickly and act so banefully as here.

We take great pride in our charitable institutions, *e.g.*, and justly so; but in every one of them we need to extend the scope of volunteer work, to send more visitors to speak words of sympathy and kindliness, and to watch with a greater jealousy that hireling way of performing duties, that often cold, mechanical, hard manner in those we employ to take charge of such institutions, which frequently defeats the whole spirit of these undertakings. I should be willing to assert that the pleasant-voiced Christian woman who passes like a ray of sunshine among the recipients of any of our charities does a work for good in the world not surpassed by the engineer who built the great Forth bridge. You remember how Longfellow pictures Florence Nightingale passing through the corridors of pain in the hospitals as "a lady with a lamp." So might all true Christliness fighting mechanical coldness in public institutions be pictured as "a lady with a lamp." We need a more careful oversight in these places, as many terrible exposures of the past few years prove. We need that trustees and benefactors should not think their work ended when they have signed their check and employed superintendents and assistants. We need that in every work there should be a band of watchers, as in the State Charities Aid Association of New York, keenly interested to see that always in the relief ministered should be present something of the spirit of Christ, and not the very possible indifference or harshness of well-paid employees grown callous by years of routine. As Madame Roland said of Liberty, so we may sometimes say of Charity: "How many crimes are committed in thy name!" "I am not wholly convinced by what you say," said a man with whom a Christian had been talking; "but one thing puzzles me, and makes me feel a power in what you tell me: it is that you should care enough for me to take all this trouble, and to labor with me as if you cared for my soul." Ay, that is a power every man must feel, — a power, let us pray, that will increase its scope among the unchristian classes of our cities and land. It is such a power, I believe, that is to make glorious the Christianity of the future; for that Christianity, if it is to do its work, cannot afford to be a narrower, less eager thing than the intense life it will have to deal with. It

will be false to its Master if in the lives of its children it shall not stand ready to go, like Elisha, and interpret in personal intercourse the Voice of God to man.

And what is all this except to say that glorious is the power of a sanctified enthusiasm? That power underlies all effective work for the redemption of men. For, to raise the dead, we must first ourselves be raised. "*Omne vivum ex vivo*" is the law of moral and spiritual as well as of all physical life. To be filled with God, that is the literal meaning of enthusiasm. Men of the world sneer at it, but the souls that have loving enthusiasm are the salt that saves the world. For they are the only souls that forget themselves, that rise triumphant over the power of these vile bodies and this selfish scheming, and that are filled with a divine desire to bring their own mastery by great truths, their own revelation of the love and goodness of God, their own ambition for progress and light, to bear upon the sordid, sluggish souls about them. And every soul as well as every age that is redeemed must be uplifted by some life that has a message for it, unconsciously or not, and that says to it with transfiguring power, "You are meant for something better than you dream,— you are a prince royal of the blood of heaven." Nature cannot teach us this. Man refuses to listen to her, full as she is of appeals to all that is best within him. Sings Lowell: —

> "Over our manhood bend the skies;
> Against our fallen and traitor lives
> The great winds utter prophecies;
> With our faint hearts the mountain strives:
> Its arms outstretched, the Druid wood
> Waits with its benedicite,
> And to our age's drowsy blood
> Still shouts the inspiring sea."

Ay, wonderful voices those! but the human heart answers not, and responds only when through some other life it hears sounding the audible Voice of God.

Finally, friends and fellow-workers, let me bid you mark how emphatically this truth overarches with its rainbow span the deliberations of this great congress of charities, which has been so hospitably made welcome to Baltimore this past week, and to this noble church to-day. It is a congress held in the name of Science,— but of Science how vainly, if above that proud name is not writ in still larger letters the more prevailing name of Love! Just as behind the complicated theory of our Constitution there lies the unexpressed truth that it can

only be enforced if the sovereign States are justly treated in it, and have learned to love it, so must we feel that no charity and no correction is possible, or avails one iota with the millions of human souls to whom we minister as either evangels or disciplinarians, unless each soul pass out into the world again softened, penetrated, strengthened, by the conviction that it has value in the eyes of God and in the heart of man. "Thy people shall be willing in the day of thy power," says the Psalmist. The world is but just beginning to learn that willingness is the only foundation of any permanent power that is to avail for good, and that willingness comes through a heart touched by other hearts about it. The age of authority is fading: the age of persuasion is opening. There is not any land or age that needs to realize this so keenly as ours; for ours is the coming together of the nations, and here is "the meeting of the waters." No irresistible central authority, venerable with antiquity, controls us; there is no common mother church, hoary with ancestral associations, no long centuries of a varied history that have welded still closer together a homogeneous people of one blood in the thousand memories of common triumphs and defeats. There is but one solvent that can cause to flow together and mingle as one this "great multitude which no man could number, of all nations and kindreds and people and tongues." It consists in the recognition, each toward each, of mutual helpfulness, that outstretched hand, that personal contact and individual kindliness, that conviction that even the worst men have in them some point at which the better nature can be touched, which we sum up, whatever be its varied manifestations, in the one word "Love." Behind all the problems with which this Conference is grappling,— problems which, I venture to say, have a more important bearing on the future of America than the deliberations of Congress, — let there lie this conviction of the absolute necessity, in all our dealings with the unfortunate or the criminal, of the inspired personality of earnest men and women. We are told of that magnificent Christian pastor, Norman McLeod, that when he was borne to his grave through the streets of Glasgow, followed by a dense multitude of mourners, one laboring-man on the sidewalk was heard to say to another, "There goes Norman McLeod; and, if he had done no more than what he did for my soul, he would shine as the stars forever." Oh, so of all who show their brotherhood in God to stunted, dwarfed, neglected human souls! We shall only know who they are, and what glorious fruit has ripened through their patient and world-forgotten labors, when one day we shall see them shining in God's heavens, like the stars, forever.

III.

Charity Organization.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

BY NATHANIEL S. ROSENAU, CHAIRMAN.

After an existence of more than twenty years in England and of twelve years in this country, the assertion may safely be made that charity organization needs no argument to prove its usefulness; and it may be regarded as a living factor in our social life which will remain with us for many years to come. This report, therefore, will deal with the present condition of the movement in this country, and may contain a few suggestions as to its betterment.

Status of Charity Organization Societies in America.

So far as can be learned, there are at present seventy-eight societies in the United States, operated under what are now recognized as charity organization methods either wholly or in part. It is very difficult to draw the line between those which may be termed strictly charity organization societies and those which are so only partially. During the year, the societies of Altoona, Penn., Dedham, Mass., and Poughkeepsie, N.Y., passed out of existence, and that of Harrisburg, Penn., suspended its operations temporarily. As an offset to this loss, new societies were organized in Lockport, N.Y., Albany, N.Y., Auburn, Me., and Mansfield, Ohio.

Individuals Interested.

The cities in which the seventy-eight societies exist have a population of 11,050,000. It is somewhat unfortunate that all these societies did not respond to the request for statistics of their work. We have, however, partial reports from thirty-seven societies existing in cities with an aggregate population of 8,502,000. These societies employ 174 paid officers, and have enrolled 2,917 friendly visitors and 1,767

officers and other workers, a total of 4,858 persons to cope with the enormous pauperism which must exist in the population represented. Thirty-two societies, representing a population of 7,239,000, report that 10,231 individuals contributed to their funds, showing that only one in 713 persons was financially interested in the organization of charity. Thirty-six societies, representing a population of 8,302,000, report their expenditures for the year to have been $172,167. The voluntary tax for charity organization, therefore, was but a trifle over two cents per capita of the population.

And the prospect of more general interest in the movement to organize charity does not seem very encouraging. For nineteen societies report their supply of workers as stationary, one as decreasing, while only sixteen report the supply increasing.

Co-operation.

Reports have been received from twenty-four societies, representing a population of 6,708,000, on this important subject. A summary of the reports shows that 55 per cent. of the charitable societies existing in these twenty-four cities, 61½ per cent. of the institutions, 43⅜ per cent. of the churches, 39⅛ per cent. of the private individuals, and 70⅔ per cent. of the public officials engaged in the distribution of relief co-operate with the societies. The outlook in this direction appears quite favorable; for fourteen societies report co-operation as increasing, while only eight report it stationary, and two make no report.

In this connection, it is a noteworthy fact that five cities report co-operation from charitable societies perfect; six report perfect co-operation from institutions; one reports perfect co-operation from churches; two report perfect co-operation from officials; while ten have accomplished perfection in the registration of official relief.

What has been Accomplished.

The statistics of twenty-six societies seem sufficiently reliable as the basis of an estimate of what organized charity has accomplished during the past year. They report that relief was not deserved or unnecessary in 5,821 cases, and that they exposed or suppressed 1,560 frauds, while through their work 1,807 families were made independent of relief or assistance of any kind. It is unnecessary to dwell upon these results from the standpoint of morality. They are their own best argument. But, should the economist or practical

business man inquire into them, it may be well to meet him with a statement of cost. On the basis of the expenditures of the twenty-six societies reporting, it cost $23.32 each to ferret out the frauds and to prevent the unworthy from obtaining assistance. On the same basis, it cost $95.27 each to make the 1,807 families self-supporting. While the cost for work with all classes was $18.74 each. If we use Mr. Edward Atkinson's figures of the difference in economic value between a wage-earner and a pauper, it will readily be seen that, on a practical business basis, charity organization has been an exceedingly good financial investment.

If the active interest in the movement to organize charity does not increase, as it should, and headway is slow in securing co-operation, we may still be consoled by its growing popularity. The following societies report that they are received with enlarged favor in their respective cities: Boston, Brooklyn, Buffalo, Detroit, Fall River, Mass., Lafayette, Ind., New Haven, Conn., New York City, Portland, Me., San Francisco, Cal., St. Louis, Mo., and Syracuse, N.Y.

This is evinced in Boston by the receipt of a few small legacies. Detroit reports that it has no trouble to get money. Lafayette says that the township trustees submit many cases to the society for decision. New Haven reports that funds are freely given to the society.

Charity Organization and Private Charity.

The cold figures presented by the societies do not indicate nearly what they have accomplished in charity work. It is not alone the actual dealing with the poor that produces good results, but the general education of the community in proper charitable methods reaches far more widely. It is pleasant, therefore, to find that Davenport, Ia., Louisville, Ky., New York City, and Salem, N.J., report a marked betterment in the administration of private charity. Portland, Me., announces a decided improvement in the administration of official relief. Fall River, Mass., expects to obtain an appointive board of overseers of the poor; and Syracuse, N.Y., announces that pauperism is perceptibly diminishing and official outdoor relief has been greatly reduced.

Local Conferences of Charities.

Many societies are at work widening their influence on local charitable work. Buffalo, Boston, Cincinnati, and Detroit report

the organization of local conferences of charities, and Denver announces the formation of a State conference. The good results of such meetings are unquestionable; and each charity organization society can do no better work, both for its own advancement and the cause of charity in general, than by organizing and fostering a similar conference.

Educational Work.

The educational work which has been referred to in previous reports of this committee is increasing in extent. Organized charity was considered of sufficient importance for a separate address before the National Convention of Christian Workers, held at Buffalo last October. In Brooklyn, twenty-four addresses by persons connected with the Bureau of Charities of that city were given in different churches, and regular courses of lectures were delivered at the General Theological Seminary of New York, at Harvard, Yale, Johns Hopkins, Cornell, Vanderbilt University, Bryn Mawr College, Ogontz, and the State Universities of Michigan, Nebraska, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

Scope of Charity Organization Societies.

There seem to be widely varying opinions as to exactly what is the proper function of a charity organization society. In some cities it is regarded as indispensable that the societies should give relief; in others, that, if they do not give relief, they should at least carry on provident schemes to assist them in their work; while others, again, deem it proper to disburse absolutely no relief. We think it may be asserted safely that those societies which disburse relief in large cities do so rather from fear of the odium which first attaches to any non-relief-giving society operating under a title which includes "charity" in its words or meaning than from any other reason, and that in a large city, where relief agencies already exist, a charity organization society will succeed best which gives no relief.

It would seem unnecessary to rehearse the arguments that have often been presented in support of this last assertion; for it is self-evident that a society in a large community, which aims to become the clearing-house and the helping hand of every charitable aggregation and individual, will be certain to offend some one or other if it give relief from its own funds. There is plenty of work in the proper organization of charity, in the thorough investigation of cases, and in directing the work of friendly visiting, to keep busy any society in a

large community. The relief-giving should be left to such societies as exist for that purpose, and to such individuals as may be interested in charitable work; for the assumption of relief-giving by any central society eliminates the contact of giver and recipient which organized charity tries to produce.

In a small community where the various forms of charitable effort are not organized, so general a rule as has been laid down may not apply. It is well enough for a society to have naught to do with actual relief-giving, because there certainly may be found individuals enough to do this work. But, in the direction of provident schemes, it might be wiser for the charity organization society to be the centre about which they will be collected.

For nothing can be more unfortunate in a little town than the undue multiplication of charitable enterprises. It causes a division of workers and an unnecessary financial drain on charitable individuals which must injure each institution. It would seem better that the plan of the Bridgeport (Conn.) society should be followed, which has just bought a home and proposes to establish in it a day nursery, a provident laundry, a women's employment bureau, a girls' sewing club, a kitchen garden, a sewing-school, and cooking classes. The general work of the society in Bridgeport cannot occupy much of the time of its officials. They can easily lend directory attention, at least, to these various enterprises; and by drawing in different individuals interested in their various schemes they will bring together a band of workers with a distinct *esprit de corps*, which will help materially the introduction and preservation of the methods of scientific charity.

Statistics.

The statistics received in connection with the preparation of this report are eminently unsatisfactory. Some of them appear unreliable on their face, and the bases of all of them seem so radically different that no reliable tables can be presented.

At the Conference of Charities in Buffalo, the representatives of the various societies adopted a blank for the collection of statistics, which was designed to be used by all the societies of the country. Twenty-seven societies agreed to use these blanks, but only eight appear to have lived up to their agreement. With this small result in hand, it is not worth while to attempt any investigation either as to the work of charity organization in general, as to the causes of pauperism or as to the direct results of charity work. There is a de-

cided need for reliable statistics with regard to the poor and pauperism, and there is no better vehicle for conveying such information than a charity organization society. All of the societies are at work trying to reduce pauperism, and all are succeeding in a measure. But nobody has yet been able to lay down a general rule for work; nobody has yet been able to give general causes for destitution, because no reliable figures, covering any considerable portion of our population, have yet been furnished upon which premises can be based.

A cardinal principle of scientific charity is to search out causes of distress, in order that work may be begun at the foundation of the trouble. Yet, with all the facilities and opportunities in the hands of the seventy-eight societies in the United States, nothing has ever been given to the economist of sufficient basic value for the study of sources of poverty.

The blanks as prepared by the New York society, pursuant to the resolution of the meeting at Buffalo, are inexpensive, and the labor of filling them out from week to week is not great; and we urge, with the utmost earnestness, that every society in the country should at once devote its attention to this work, which is by no means the least important it can perform.

Missionary Work.

It has been stated that seventy-eight societies in American cities are laboring with the poor on charity organization lines. Could the number of poor in these different cities be kept stationary, there is no doubt that in time the societies would accomplish all that they set out to do. But according to the census of 1880 there were 227 American cities with upwards of 10,000 population. Therefore, it appears that 149 cities in America are engaged still in charitable work on the old lines, and probably manufacturing paupers as rapidly as they are being suppressed in the other 78 cities.

The pauper is a nomad by nature. He travels from one place to another, and his progeny are scattered over the face of the earth; and time and again they drift to the cities which are organized in charitable work and there add to the burden of labor. Besides, of the seventy-eight societies of which we have cognizance, many are in a drooping state, many are using fallacious methods, and all un-

doubtedly need the stimulus and help which come from contact with experienced charity workers. It would seem, therefore, to be high time that the societies should organize some systematic method of encouraging the creation of societies in communities where they do not now exist, and of assisting those societies which need help in one way or another.

From returns presented by twenty-four societies, it appears that about forty-four per cent. of the paupers in their cities are of American birth. The studies which have been made into the history of pauper families indicate that they arise largely in small communities, and ultimately drift to the larger ones. The 149 cities which are without charity organization are mostly small communities, and they are helping to maintain this large percentage of home-grown paupers. The large cities have enough to do in caring for the 56 per cent. of paupers who are foreign born, for it is to them that the indigent alien first makes his way. The American pauper should be cared for where he originates.

If the battle against pauperism is to begin at all, it should begin in the small community, at the root of the evil; and the societies of the larger cities could spend their means and devote their labors, with fully as much profit in immediate results and much larger profit in future effects, to the work of stimulating the establishment of co-operating associations in every community in America.

STATISTICS:

THEIR VALUE IN CHARITY ORGANIZATION WORK.

BY CHARLES D. KELLOGG, GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

The portion of the report of the chairman of this committee which suggests the value of statistics in the study of social questions deserves to be emphasized. It hardly seems possible to say too much in favor of collating all such statistics as will throw light upon the causes, the present condition, and the wisest treatment of poverty and pauperism; yet it is painfully true that many earnest and benevolent

administrators of charity are not only indifferent to their use, but oppose the necessary expenditures of means and labor as foolish, fanciful extravagance. But can charity be love without wisdom? Can it be wise without a thorough knowledge of all component facts? Can it have those facts in instructive shape without systematic collection and a competent, discerning analysis of them?

Statistics are the link which convert theoretical science to the practical uses of life, and correct the errors of speculative generalizations. While theory is the process by which research discovers law, facts are the test whether the theory be true or false. Also, when intelligently gathered and examined, statistics record the progress of institutions intended to give effect to social laws, and make apparent the causes of their successes and failures.

The function of sociology is to bring to light the lines upon which human interests should be developed in order to secure the best conditions of life; and so it has now come to be recognized as pre-eminently a study of collated details, a scrutiny not only of isolated, but of classified facts. Thus it teaches us what we are already doing by right methods and what by wrong ones, and points out the reformation of the latter.

Every effectual reform must be founded on insight into the law of details which connects and explains them. Thus we must know what we want before we can know how to supply it. Hence, as some one pithily says, "The political economist pilots the Ship of State, while the statistician holds the lead line." Dr. Chalmers affirms, "Labors and researches in statistics I hold in very high estimation: they furnish political economy with its best materials." In this age, the force of statistics in other departments of human interests is far from being denied; and all sorts of writers and speakers on social topics now bolster up their arguments with huge arrays of them. But the uses made of them are so various, and the conclusions drawn from them so contradictory, that many have come to believe that, after all, figures will lie. As an illustration how men collate facts solely to prove what they set out to show, and how sometimes their range of study is so limited that they do not perceive in this complex and shifting life of to-day that a larger collection of details will modify and perhaps reverse all their processes, Professor Richard T. Ely of Baltimore may be quoted. He says, in the last April *Century*: "When we find men belonging to the same school of political economy, in arguments *on commercial policy*, arriving at the conclusion that

the labor-cost of manufactured articles is but 18 or 20 per cent. of the entire cost, and then by similar processes in arguments *on labor and capital* endeavoring to convince us that labor receives over 90 per cent. of the product, we are justified in exercising a wholesome scepticism in regard to the value of all these statistics. The truth is that as a whole they are not worth the paper on which they are written."

The trouble in America lies chiefly in the fact that the gathering of statistics is a new art, and that the data are only in a very limited way either authentic or complete. It is as much of an art as botany or law. There is nothing in the United States to-day that so perplexes and hinders the economist and sociologist, or misleads legislation, or which starts benevolence on so many false ventures, as the absence of ample and trustworthy statistics. Details should be gathered, not to prove a proposition, but to start one; and are of use only when scientifically studied by disinterested minds of wide, prolonged, and disciplined experience. Hence the comparatively recent movement in our more intelligent States, and by the general government, to create special bureaus to gather statistics of labor, crime, agriculture, etc.

Perhaps, in all the efforts of the times to find out right rules of conduct between man and man, none suffer more from the lack of trustworthy data than those directed toward general charity. Detached or local sets of facts were gathered at first, and, when scrutinized, gave surprising results. But it was the admitted need of more authentic knowledge which called Charity Organization into existence, and bade it apply itself first and foremost to investigation. The promoters of the movement saw that the sorrows of millions of fellow-creatures, depressed in the midst of unexampled wealth and prosperity, could not be healed until their miseries were measured, traced home, and the inexorable laws of social deterioration or restitution discovered.

It is no argument, then, against statistics that they must be used intelligently. So must fire and steam and water, which as masters are mischievous, as servants are indispensable. The more difficult statistics are to understand, the more need of understanding them. An ignorant presentation of them would pervert the vision; while an intelligent formulation and arrangement would clear the insight, and make plain the solution of many vexed problems.

The State is doing much to comprehend and regulate the police

and charitable work which it undertakes; but private or voluntary charity still holds meagre results in its inefficient hands. Few reliable sets of facts have been gathered by it, because so much of this branch of benevolent work is still segregated, shifting, self-sufficient, discordant. Where hospitals and institutions make methodical exhibits of their work, it is rare that any two agree in form and classes of facts, or that any comparisons of them are made; and hence upon them are still grafted many grave abuses and impositions.

Relief societies continue year after year, seeming to ask no clearer insight into the true mode of suppressing desertions of families, dealing with drunkenness, adjusting labor, or treating with shiftlessness and trampery. Such questions as how far immigration is accountable for existing pauperism, what are the precise bearings of insanitation and improvidence upon poverty, etc., apparently little trouble their councils. Learning no lessons, no steps are taken to restrict the dreadful consequences of erroneous methods; and so these consequences are multiplied for lack of that consideration which, if ignored in business, would soon relegate the actors to bankruptcy and financial disgrace.

The Hon. Abram S. Hewitt, in an address before the Charity Organization Society of the city of New York, said that, when we attempt to solve physical or economical problems, "we apply the inductive theory, which has given us the discoveries of science, and the triumphs of ingenuity, making our time the wonder of the ages. That is the method which is to be adopted in dealing with the evils of society. They are to be studied in detail. We must go into the tenements and cellars and garrets, where we can talk to the individual as this society wisely does, and find out what brought him there and made him what he is, and then slowly the truth will begin to appear; and then, by a comparison of the facts observed by this society with those in Boston and London, all equally engaged in the same pursuit,— then slowly, but surely, will come out, not merely the law which should govern the reformation, but by degrees the practical method of bringing it about. There is no royal road to learning, there is no royal road to charity. If we walk out in the streets and scatter our fortunes, we know we have only done an evil. What is needed is first a knowledge of the facts, a careful consideration of their nature, an honest desire and determination to find the remedy, and then, when we have found it, to make it apparent to the rich that, unless they apply it, they are digging their own ruin."

And again: "The method of close observation and patient research will be applied to the solution of this problem of the ages. Facts will be collected, compared, and differentiated. All charitable organizations will co-operate; and at length the truth will begin to appear, and the world will bless the unknown benefactor who has brought scientific methods to bear upon a subject which heretofore has been supposed to belong exclusively to the domain of morals."

It is probable that the registration and investigation apparatus of Charity Organization, as a means of associated work in the field of voluntary beneficence, meets with indifference because its real purpose is misunderstood. It was never intended to be primarily a detective mechanism for labelling impostors and curtailing their opportunities; nor was it designed to reduce the cost to the community of supporting the unfortunate and vicious. Indeed, it has been distinctly foreseen that the results might call upon us for more arduous effort and even a larger generosity of time and purse. Nor was it dreamed that the beneficiary would be lost to personal sympathy through hard scientific classifications, to each group of which might be dosed out its particular remedy. All this is the exact opposite of the fact. The apparatus was designed in pity and solicitude, not for the public, but for the miserable. It is contrived to follow the individual, so that he can no longer secrete himself from sympathy, but shall stand before us in his true habiliments, mutely saying to a larger wisdom and faith than his own, "Here is my wretchedness: can you, will you, save me?" From knowledge of the individual it means to go on to the law both of ruin and of restoration. Nor does it claim for its managers a superior skill in dealing with social evils. Rather it says to the benevolent world: "Here are all these lame and impotent in body or mind,— all living human beings. Come, let us understand them and help them." It garners information, not for its archives, but for all who will use it for the benefit of humanity. Whenever voluntary charity awakens to its responsibility, and disinterestedly addresses itself to the gigantic task before it, it will have recourse to measures like those of Charity Organization, demanding not juggling, scant, delusive figures, but hard-sought, authentic, wisely differentiated statistics, each figure standing for a visible human soul.

THE UTILITY OF ORGANIZED CHARITY IN AN EMERGENCY.

BY HANNAH M. TODD, REGISTRAR OF ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF LYNN, MASS.

In the ordinary field of charitable and philanthropic work, the value of organized charity depends largely on the degree of co-operation secured with relief-giving societies and individuals; but in an emergency the application of the system and its adherence to principles are the test of its efficiency.

The Associated Charities of Lynn was organized in 1885. For four years we had been winning our way in public favor, the degree of co-operation had steadily increased, and the people had become acquainted with our principles and methods, when, just as the society had entered on the fifth year of its existence, we were confronted by an emergency which was a severe trial of our organization and system. Tuesday, November 26, a most disastrous fire occurred in the shoe-manufacturing section of our city, just as the shoe business, upon which Lynn is largely dependent, was opening with prospects for a good season of activity, after a long period of business depression. The fire swept an area of twenty-five acres, exclusive of streets, destroying fifty per cent. of the shoe-manufacturing capacity, depriving upwards of seven thousand persons of employment, and rendering one hundred and seventy-five families homeless. It was estimated that in value one-fourteenth of the buildings of the city was destroyed.

The fire originated in a large shoe manufactory. It broke out at about noon, when fortunately most of the operatives had left the factory, otherwise there must have been a list of casualties and accidents to add to the terrible disaster. The fire continued to rage until midnight, when it was brought under control. It was impossible to save much property, as the fire spread rapidly, and its course was completely changed by a capricious wind.

This calamity fell heaviest on the poor, as the dwellings destroyed were largely tenement houses occupied by the poorer classes, or houses owned by hard-working people and heavily mortgaged. Many of these families, besides losing their homes, were deprived of employment.

The loss to the business men is largely covered by insurance; but the loss to the poor is total, as there is no insurance on labor, and their household effects are seldom insured at all.

A large number of the burned out families were known to the Associated Charities, so that their condition was readily conceived and their needs quickly realized. While the fire was in progress, the registrar of the society, in company with the superintendent of the Women's Union for Christian Work, the only paid agents of general charitable work in the city, made a hasty survey of the situation, and outlined a plan of work. Many of the families were seen, and assured of our interest and our plans for their temporary aid. Their appreciation of the sympathy of those who knew their lives and could understand their situation was most touching.

A rough estimate was made of families needing shelter, many of them having found temporary homes with friends or their more fortunate neighbors. Rooms for women and children were engaged in various boarding-houses. Our accommodations were quickly exhausted; and, as the evening came on, it became evident that shelter must be provided in the immediate vicinity of the disaster, and a school-house was opened, by order of the mayor, and furnished with mattresses and blankets. At the suggestion of the mayor, with whom we were in consultation and co-operation, our rooms were kept open all night, and applicants were furnished with lodgings.

During the night, details of work were arranged, so that in the morning we were prepared for active systematic execution.

The Associated Charities volunteered to supply food to the needy until relief work should be organized by the city; and, with the assistance of the First Methodist Episcopal Society, hot soups, coffee, beans, etc., were prepared in their church, and supplied from there on our orders.

It was decided by our committee that, as Thursday was Thanksgiving and a holiday, it would be best to furnish a general dinner for the sufferers by the fire. The Father Mathew Society offered us the use of their hall, and the service of their members, for this purpose. Notice was given that such a dinner would be served, and contributions of cooked food were solicited. One hundred and seventy-five persons partook of the dinner, and baskets of food were sent to those unable to attend. The contributions were so generous that the next morning one hundred and fifty families were supplied with food in quantities sufficient to last them two days, after which they were provided by the Citizens' Relief Fund.

This emergency, which we keenly felt would test the efficiency of our work, brought us renewed evidence of the confidence of the people, and their recognition of our society as a bureau of information and an association of charitable agencies. We were overcome for a time by an embarrassment of riches in the offers of assistance which came pouring in on all sides,— clerical workers, visitors, physicians, offers of homes, as well as financial help, were quickly forthcoming. All the workers were needed, however, and as rapidly as possible this assistance was utilized; though it required much care to organize and direct such a force of volunteers.

At noon of the day following the fire, a meeting of citizens called by the mayor was held. This was the beginning of organization for relief on the part of the city, but it was not until the following Monday, six days after the fire, that active work was entered into by the Citizens' Relief Committee. In the mean time, the Associated Charities had prepared application blanks, of which the following is a form: —

ASSOCIATED CHARITIES.

LYNN, 18

Name,
Former residence,
Present residence,
Permanent or temporary,
No. of children,
What destroyed,
How many of family lost employment by fire?
Employment,
Where employed,
Value of property destroyed,
Was furniture owned or on instalments?
Any insurance?
Remarks,

Upwards of two hundred applications had been already registered and investigated, volunteers having been sent out to verify the statements of the applicants. At this early and chaotic stage of the work, valuable assistance was given by a corps of experienced workers from the Boston Associated Charities, who, at the timely suggestion of the General Secretary of that society, volunteered their services. The fact of their experience and training inspired us with confidence, and they were of incalculable service in reducing the work to a system and directing volunteers.

At the suggestion of the Superintendent of Schools, clothing was

collected in every school in the city, and sent to us for distribution; and the higher grades sent very generous collections of money, which was made the basis of an emergency fund, from which expenses incurred previous to the organization of the Relief Committee were paid. While the Relief Committee was effecting an organization, we were called in conference. They were informed of the methods of registration and investigation which we had adopted, the extent of the work done, and the system effected; the machinery of the society and service of its workers were placed at their disposal. This offer was accepted; and the office of the Associated Charities was made the headquarters of the Relief Committee, they taking up the work at the point to which we had carried it, and the system and co-operation then adopted has been continued during the work. In arranging the details, the committee divided the work under four heads, as follows: Registration, Investigation, Recommendation, and Relief,— the work of registration and relief to be in charge of the committee, and that of investigation and recommendation were assigned to the Associated Charities. In the first rush of the work, it was impossible to have more than a surface investigation; but it was sufficient to form the basis of decision in an emergency. It was our policy to have every application investigated before relief was rendered. This caused but a few hours' delay, and the results warranted it.

In addition to the application blanks, registration cards were used, so that with the history was kept a complete record of the aid given, information gathered, decisions made, and judgment of any member of the committee or their co-operators. This method simplified the work to such an extent that, after the first few weeks, when registration had practically ceased and the work was largely duplicate orders, any one member of the committee could easily receive all the applicants, and decide on their orders, as he could gather at a glance all information, aid given, and previous judgment, thus saving a series of questions which might otherwise have been asked by the various members of the committee each time a person applied.

Friendly visiting is one of the principal tenets of Associated Charities, and has justly been called the heart of the work. In this emergency, it seemed of first importance that the families burned out and aided should be looked after by a friendly visitor until they were on their feet again, that suffering on the one hand and pauperization on the other should be guarded against. Our corps of visitors was of great assistance through their experience, but wholly inadequate to

the need. The following circular letter was sent to the clergymen of the various churches : —

My dear Sir,— The Associated Charities, of which you are by its constitution a member, is acting in connection with the Citizens' Relief Committee to relieve the present distress, and to rehabilitate the homes that have been destroyed. We would be glad to have you send, say, six of your experienced workers, that we may put one in charge of each family to advise, oversee, and direct the restoration of the home. Those who will undertake this work are requested to report at the office of the Associated Charities, No. 5 Lee Hall. The object is not only to at once relieve distress, but to permanently better the condition of these families so far as possible.

(Signed)

The response to this letter was very prompt, and in less than one week one hundred visitors were enrolled. It was some time before the visitors were assigned families, as it was important to use our best judgment, and some knowledge of the family and adaptability of the visitor was necessary to secure good results. This phase of the work was introduced with some trepidation, as the visitors were, for the most part, inexperienced in systematic visiting, and uneducated in the value of sustained friendly relation. Moreover, the Relief Committee were not unanimously favorable to the plan; and we felt that any mistake, lack of judgment or tact on the part of the visitor, would seriously reflect on the system. After families had been assigned, a conference of visitors was held, and the general principles of the work explained. Fortnightly meetings have been held, called emergency conferences, at which the visitors have reported the condition and prospects of the families. These reports were transferred to the registration cards, and accepted as the basis of decision for the continuance or discontinuance of relief.

One member of the committee, in speaking of the work of friendly visiting, said — and I have no doubt he voiced the opinion of others — he thought it was an intrusion to send people to visit these families in their homes simply because they have been overwhelmed by disaster. When I first entered the work of organized charity, I felt the same, and theoretically recognize the force of the objection; but, practically, it is never considered an intrusion by the family visited, though it is a work requiring judgment, delicate tact, and sympathy.

The disaster made the *entrée* of a stranger's home easy and natural. It was a common calamity, there were few that had not been

affected by it in a greater or less degree, and it was a perfectly natural desire to sympathize with those most seriously affected, and aid in re-establishing their homes. The results have exceeded our expectations, and the pleasure expressed by many of the families visited has been sufficient testimony of the value of the work. In cases where the family was unknown to us except through the emergency, and where friendly interest seemed essential, we inquired if they would not like to have some one who had more time than we visit them. Invariably, there was a cordial assent, with a brightening face; and often persons coming to the office would speak of the call and interest of the visitor with a great deal of pleasure. If this visiting had been of no special value to the Citizens' Relief Committee, we should still feel more than paid for the work, as it was of great service to the families. Nothing but personal friendly relations with the poor can give any conception of the narrowness of their lives and the meagreness of their opportunities, and how grateful they are for the interest of one who lives a broader life.

The Relief Committee is composed of business men, inexperienced in the work of relief; but they have labored most faithfully, giving aid generously, but judiciously, and with constant thought for the permanent improvement of the families aided. They have recognized the value of adequate relief, and have dispensed the same with discrimination. As far as known there has been no suffering that it was possible to prevent, and visitors have unanimously reported that families were comfortably provided for.

There have been about fifteen hundred applications registered, a large portion of which represented families, aggregating about five thousand persons. About ninety-nine per cent. of the applicants were aided at least once; several families were furnished transportation to other cities, where there was opportunity for employment.

Some of the burned out shoe manufacturers secured factories in other cities; still others erected temporary structures in our own city, thus giving their workmen employment in a few weeks.

The fund for relief was about seventy thousand dollars ($70,000), and in the first three months forty thousand dollars ($40,000) were expended. All aid was given by orders.

As the applicants came in large numbers each day, it was impossible to attend to their needs immediately upon their arrival. They were therefore given numbers, and were served in regular order.

As a rule, the recipients came to the office weekly, and were sup-

plied with orders for groceries, fuel (and in many cases rent), according to their needs, until they procured work, or until for some other cause aid was discontinued.

One hundred and seventy-five families were supplied with household furniture, which, in most cases, practically re-established their homes; while in many cases the family were more comfortably situated than before the disaster.

The distribution of clothing was made a special department; and everything was given out from one general source of supply on signed orders from headquarters, specifying the articles to be provided. This work of distributing clothing was in charge of volunteers, and continued five months.

One of the most helpful forms of relief was found to be the payment of rent, and this was done to a considerable extent. A double purpose was thus served, keeping a shelter for the family and giving them a chance to begin work free from debt, as well as giving to the owner of the house his due, the owners in many cases being people who had invested their small earnings in real estate, and were dependent on their rents.

In so extensive a work, dealing with so many people, there were, naturally, a number of fraudulent applications; but, by careful investigation and constant watchfulness, these were quickly discovered, so that the actual number of frauds perpetrated was very small. In these cases aid was at once discontinued, and in three instances the cash value of the aid received was returned to the committee.

Having but one bureau of registration and relief simplified the work very much, preventing overlapping and fraud.

Of the great evil which we feared might result from the creation of a fund,—namely, pauperization,—it is too early to speak; and our fears may not be realized. Every possible precaution has been taken to guard against it by means of friendly visiting, adequate relief, discontinuance of relief at the earliest moment practicable, and avoiding duplications; but the fact of months of idleness and a fund for specific cases causes serious apprehension of demoralization.

The aid rendered by the Associated Charities through their system was readily conceded by all. Its methods were easily adapted to the requirements of the emergency, and a corps of trained workers was at hand to direct the large number of untrained volunteers. The Citizens' Relief Committee were thus enabled to begin work at once

in a systematic manner on a definite plan, thereby saving much valuable time.

In writing this paper, I have tried to state the actual work done by the Associated Charities, and the application of the system to an emergency. As the relief work is still in progress, a report of the results of that work cannot be given at this writing.

THE JOHNSTOWN FLOOD:

A LESSON IN THE VALUE OF ORGANIZED CHARITIES.

BY L. S. EMERY, GENERAL SECRETARY OF THE ASSOCIATED CHARITIES OF WASHINGTON, D.C.

Last year we paused before an awful calamity which appalled the civilized world. We turned our attention to it with a common interest. Local necessities were hushed in silence amidst the swelling excitement of a great and generous impulse. The beneficent response challenges precedent and the admiration of mankind. It was an event of the kind which will pass along down the ages as the calamity of the period.

There were loss of life and loss of property so sudden and so disastrous that the distress call echoed and re-echoed all over the land. There was an outpouring of funds and of supplies matchless in proportion and grand in its educational effect.

Johnstown was first flooded by water with terrible and heart-rending effect, and it was next flooded with supplies so overwhelmingly that it needed experienced guidance in their distribution to prevent tremendous waste and terribly demoralizing effects.

The need and advantages of organized charities are being recognized more and more throughout the entire civilized world, but the necessities and advantages of good organization and systematic work were never more fully exemplified than in this crisis; and to me it is assigned to discuss that theme,— I presume, because it was my fortune to be at Johnstown, and to be a careful observer of the methods which were adopted in relieving that stricken people, and to render my services in behalf of the District of Columbia's Committee.

Organized charity stands as a bulwark, protesting against a pau-

perizing process, urging and warning all good citizens to beware of the evil effects of unintelligent and indiscriminate alms-giving, and offering to work with all associations and persons in the prompt and adequate relief of real distress, and presenting the machinery for doing it in a quiet, prompt, healthful, delicate, and confidential manner.

It saves the citizens from the demoralizing effects of contributions from mass meetings, which are usually doled out by persons untrained in such work, so indiscriminatingly as to do more harm than good by creating a scramble, and a stand-and-deliver system, to the persons that come first with the terrible picture of distress manufactured for the occasion.

This careful discriminating process — this going into the homes of the poor confidentially by discreet men and women, this carefully prepared list of the unfortunate, the honest as well as the dishonest, until we cover the field with a systematized, alphabetically arranged list, with the conditions of each noted upon cards and in ledgers,— saves the citizens and the public authorities much trouble and expense. It meets emergencies in trying seasons of the year, and consoles the consciences of those who are troubled about the condition of the poor when the thermometer is at zero, because they are confident that the Associated Charities is upon the alert.

It provides measures for the protection of citizens against imposture and duplication, and is a potent agency in helping the neglected poor properly, as well as being an economical agency for citizen taxpayers.

These associations have grown steadily in the confidence of citizens everywhere; and the successful management of them demands as much skill and ability as any other profession in life.

Aid unskilfully given or a cold, heartless reference to another for the aid required may inflict a wound which would never heal, a loss of confidence and faith in the kindness of humanity, and a fatal crippling for all future usefulness to society and happiness to self.

Aid skilfully, delicately, and confidentially given strikes home to the stricken heart, and inspires a confidence in the goodness of God and the kindly consideration of mankind. Courage and energy are rekindled, so that, when health is restored and circumstances are more favorable, they are ready to resume their accustomed vocations in life and their places in society without cringing or a blush, with a consciousness that temporary straits have not been heralded about to their chagrin and hurt.

To administer aid in this *skilful*, *delicate*, *confidential* way is a cardinal principle, the duty and the plan of these associations,— to place every man, woman, and child that needs aid and receives it in a position where they may face the world, and engage in its usual avocations without feeling that they are met constantly with the frowns and rebuffs of their fellow-men because they have been driven to a temporary strait and have been aided through it or tided over it. In this we differ from the public administration of charities and almsgiving to paupers, which puts them to a deeper shame and a more deplorable condition of pauperism; and, should we relax our energies and loosen our methods by giving alms in the style and publicity of the ordinary methods of the administration of public charity, as we are often moved and urged to do, without skill, care, discretion, and delicacy, we should degenerate into a pauperizing agency.

We are no longer meditating upon abstract theories in this enterprise, but are engaged in the active, energetic work of demonstrating theories which have been well settled by years of experience in successful practice.

Upon my arrival at Johnstown, my attention was at once attracted to the manner of the distribution from headquarters, both as to clothing and provisions.

Two windows were set apart from which clothing and shoes were being thrown out over the heads of the crowd; and those having the longest arms and stoutest backs seemed to be getting most of it, without regard as to who they were or the suitableness of the garments thrown out. I paused to observe this for a few minutes, and then passed along to the window and the door where the groceries were being doled out. Here, too, was a crowd of persons with baskets; and, as a basket was reached out, it would be filled without any note as to who they were, and the recipient would pass along. I drew up close to the crowd, and heard several citizens remark, "Well, look there, any one can get these goods"; and so it seemed to be, if they were strong enough to stand the crowd and the tedious waiting. Some women stood aloof from the crowd, crying, and, when asked what the matter was, replied that they could not stand that crowd and could get nothing. Some said they had been waiting since morning to get an opportunity to get up to the door or window to get something to carry away to eat.

The chairman of the Relief Committee (who was not a resident) was sought, and his attention was called to the manner of distribu-

tion; but he would not listen to any suggestion touching a change in the plan. The active local committee were then conferred with, and it was agreed that a system should be inaugurated by placing one man on one side of the door or window to record the person coming for assistance and the goods received, and a man on the other side to deal out what was required, seeing to it that the sufferers from the flood received the goods, or that they went into the proper hands. As they were citizens of the place, they could judge properly. The next day after my arrival that plan was adopted; and the crowd that had assembled around each of these places early in the morning, as soon as they discovered that a system or check upon the delivery had been inaugurated, began to disappear, and the people for whom the goods were intended began to receive them.

It was a severely trying place for those most helpless. The débris and the mud, with daily rains, added to the embarrassments; and the fresh wounds from losses by drowning of a portion of their families ill prepared them for the struggle in the tumultuous crowd. I found a careful watchfulness upon the outside to be an important mission, as well as the inauguration of some orderly system at the doors, the windows, and inside the well-packed commissary quarters and the clothing storehouse. Here, too, a local organization could have been of great service.

On Tuesday, several carloads of new cooking-stoves and ranges came to hand. These were the most valuable in kind to be handled, and needed great care in the distribution. For some reason, the committee assigned the duty of distributing these stoves to me; and in less than thirty-six hours about one hundred and thirty good cooking-stoves were delivered to the *bona fide* sufferers from the flood in Johnstown and the suburban boroughs, with a certificate from a well-known resident that they were actual sufferers and a record of where they lived when the flood occurred, where they were at the time the stove was taken, where it was to be delivered, and a receipt for the stove in each case. In all this issue of stoves there was nothing but the utmost satisfaction expressed at the exactness of the method and the justness of the issue, except in one case, and that was from a man who had obtained a certificate, all right, that he ought to have a stove; but he betrayed the weakness of his claim at once by his manner. Upon being carefully examined, he had to confess that his only loss in the flood was a little damage to the top of his stove, which he could easily repair; and it is sufficient to say that he did not get a stove.

Just before leaving Johnstown, I learned all that I possibly could concerning the sufficiency of supplies, and became satisfied that there was a surplus of clothing and, for a while, an abundance of provisions.

The militia, under a good leader, were in control, and in hearty co-operation with the cititizens in the distribution of relief and carrying forward the work; and the reclamation of the city was assured.

If an organized charitable association could not have mastered the situation as to the distribution the first few days, it could have stepped in at this juncture, and, with a good corps of agents familiar with the people of the place and an experienced leader to direct, could have given direction as to the distribution of the abundance that was then on hand, and prevented much of the duplication, waste, and demoralization. Those who had lost much, and perchance all, would have been sought out and their exact necessities ascertained, and systematically and bountifully supplied, as there was enough contributed to meet every needed emergency; but there was no local organization to fall back upon, and much was unwisely disposed of and wasted. Johnstown and that disaster are marked and emphatic illustrations of the great need of organized charities in the large towns and cities of the country.

In regard to the scenes and heart-rending incidents at Johnstown, I can add but little to the descriptions which have been given to the public through the press. I can safely say that the horrors of the wreck were not exaggerated, nor can they well be. A candid man may look down upon the ruined city from any direction, and say "indescribable." It was a sorrowfully interesting spectacle.

To those familiar with the streets at Washington, I can better describe it by asking them to imagine F Street filled from side to side, from four to twenty-five feet high, with buildings crushed on both sides, from the Treasury to 7th Street, with débris consisting of bricks, logs, fragments of crushed frame-houses, limbs, large roots of trees, human beings, and dumb beasts, and all filled and saturated with black, greasy mud from top to bottom, and they would have something of an idea of Main Street of Johnstown. The brick buildings, to be sure, are not so massive as many are on F Street. Then cast your eye along the other streets, and see them filled with all kinds of débris and mud, with only here and there a house standing, and realize a vast space formerly more or less compactly built, reaching from Georgetown to the Capitol in length, and half a mile in

width, swept off or crushed to atoms by the flood in an hour. Those that were swept off were toppled over upon sides and upon the roofs, sometimes half a dozen backed in an eddy together, great logs plunged through some at the upper stories or lying against or upon the tops of others, pianos and furniture piled in a common heap, large brick structures crushed down, massive walls of churches broken in and borne down by the tremendous force of the current and the débris, a horrible wreck of so vast a magnitude and complete destruction, and, to make the scene of wreck look more dismal, all besmirched and saturated with that peculiar black, slimy mud. Then, too, realize that thousands of human beings lay mixed with this vast mass of débris, and you have a scene that will impress you as long as you live, and a faint conception of how Johnstown and Kernsville looked after the terrible disaster of that eventful day.

The flooding of the city of Johnstown and its suburbs had commenced before the dam gave way, and the householders and business men were busy getting their goods up from the basements and the first and second floors, when the bells rang and the shop whistle blew, giving the signal of the impending danger from the breakage of the noted dam. This fact accounts, in part, for the great loss of life which occurred, and which puzzled so many to comprehend. The water had already risen to a tremendous height, and was still rising, when the roaring of the waters and the huge mass of débris came roaring down the Conemaugh Valley, sweeping everything before it, and a mist rose up like that of Niagara a thousand times increased.

A few dwellings stood in the lower or main portion of the city, but the main portion of the dwellings saved were situated upon the edge of the hill upon ground so high that the tremendous current did not strike them with great force; and it was to these houses, as well as to numerous cottages further up on the hillsides overlooking the city, that the survivors from the wrecked houses fled, and are quartered now. In many of these cottages there were five or six families. Some of the survivors, however, have gone further back into the country.

The more fortunate of the citizens who escaped the wreck were cordially responsive in their sympathy, and did all they could, apparently, to make the unfortunate citizens as comfortable as possible.

Too much cannot be said in commendation of the Red Cross Association and the Grand Army of the Republic, which were organized agencies, and both did excellent work in the distribution of supplies.

The Red Cross Association, with Miss Clara Barton at its head,

had a large corps of workers, who visited the temporary homes of the survivors, and noted their condition and needs, and supplied them in a systematic and helpful manner, as far as their means would permit. A corps of physicians came to Johnstown, and established their headquarters on Bedford Street, and rendered good service by attending to the outlying portions of Johnstown, and going wherever their services were required.

These were positive illustrations of the great advantages of organized charities; but a local organization that was familiar with the place, composed of persons of the town, trained to systematic methods, would have been a potent agency to have fallen back upon while the great army of helpers were there, and especially important in the first few days after the disaster in the proper distribution of the abundant supply which was promptly sent to the relief of that stricken town in that its sad day of disaster and distress.

THE GREAT TORNADO.

BY W. T. ROLPH, LOUISVILLE, KY.

In the afternoon papers of March 27, 1890, there appeared from the Weather Bureau at Washington a notice of warning of severe local storms and atmospheric trouble in Louisville and vicinity. Shortly before the tornado there came a heavy rain, followed by a hail-storm accompanied by severe lightning. The wind began to blow with a low, mournful sound, which soon increased to a fearful shriek, as it swept over the doomed portion of the city. The calamity occurred about 8.30 P.M., and was over in a few minutes.

From the fact of the severe rain and hail-storm, a great many who would have been on the streets at that hour had sought shelter, and to this fact was due undoubtedly the comparatively small loss of life in view of the tremendous character of the disaster, as the streets were filled with flying débris, fallen trees, walls, and telegraph poles.

The storm approached Louisville from a south-westerly direction down the river a few miles south-west of the city, destroying farm-houses, barns, stock, and severely damaging the town of Parkland, a suburb of Louisville. It struck Louisville at its south-western point, traversing the entire length of the city from south-west to

north-east, crossed over the Ohio River to Jeffersonville, Ind., re-crossed the river, and destroyed the standpipe at the City Water Works, a point some three miles east of its last crossing. From that point, it seemed to have spent its force, and passed over the State doing but little injury.

The width of the storm, as evidenced by the damage through the city, was from three hundred to eight hundred yards; and in its passage it partially, and in some cases totally, destroyed 5 churches, 1 railroad depot (Union), 2 public halls, 3 schools, 256 stores, 32 manufacturing establishments, 10 tobacco warehouses, and 532 residences in the city. In addition to this, it destroyed and damaged in Parkland and vicinity some 70 residences, and in the settlement known as Cane Run, occupied mainly by small farmers, some 22 buildings. The pecuniary loss of the storm, it is estimated by careful calculation, amounted to $2,150,000. There were 76 lives lost, and over 200 persons injured, some very severely, by the calamity.

The next morning (Friday) a call was made from the Board of Trade for a mass meeting of the citizens to consider the matter of relief, the meeting being held at the Board of Trade Rooms. At that meeting a committee, called the General Relief Committee, consisting of some sixty persons, was appointed to take measures to assist and protect the sufferers by the tornado. From this committee of sixty, an Executive Committee of ten was formed. To this Executive Committee, practically, the work of relief was intrusted. The Mayor of the city, the President of the Board of Aldermen, and President of the Board of Councilmen were members of this Executive Committee; and there was perfect harmony and understanding had from the start that, through this committee, known as "Board of Trade Relief Committee," all relief would be administered.

Committees on Finance, etc., were appointed; and at the close of that day a headquarters in Board of Trade Rooms was established, a corps of clerks employed, and everything made ready to meet and grapple with the emergency.

Some few members of the Executive Committee had had previous experience in relief work in the floods of 1883 and 1884, and from the start a systematic form of relief was established. Large posters were put up through the devastated district, and notices put in all the papers of the city, stating the object of the Relief Committee and its location. The Executive Committee held daily sessions for some twenty-eight days, and the chairman and secretary of the committee

remained at the relief headquarters the entire time the relief work was in progress.

Blank applications had been prepared and printed; and, as the applicants presented themselves, they were asked by the clerks in waiting to give a brief statement of their cases and their needs. If the matter was of immediate distress, injury, loss of home, medical assistance needed, furniture and clothing lost, or property destroyed, a brief statement of the same was given by the applicant, who also gave his or her residence in the wrecked district, and, if removed (which was the case with a large number of persons, their homes being entirely swept away or destroyed), where they were located, and could be found. They were then requested to retire, and were told that immediate attention would be given to their case. This first statement became the original application paper. It was numbered consecutively and indexed by number, and the case was known only by number in all future transactions regarding it. A duplicate was made of each application, to be used for indorsing thereon by the investigator the relief, etc., given.

The Louisville Charity Organization Society's agents' services were at once called into requisition as investigators, and the wrecked district divided up into territory for each man. These were assisted by voluntary investigators from our own citizens, members of the Board of Trade, Commercial Club, and Flower Mission; but the real work of investigating was intrusted to these men, the others acting and co-operating with them.

These investigators were given the *duplicate* copy of the application; and, if the cases were of immediate necessity, they were furnished with an order-book for carrying the necessary relief to the family, and this order was in turn presented at the Relief Office for payment by the storekeeper who furnished the groceries, coal, medicines, etc.

It was understood that, until all necessitous cases were relieved, losses and damages to furniture and property were not to be considered, though it should be remembered that on the original application all the various kinds of relief needed were stated. The investigators were also told not to confine themselves to the applications in hand, but to search out and report all cases needing assistance; and this, being systematically and thoroughly done, resulted in the finding out of hundreds of worthy cases who, either from pride or other cause, refrained from making their wants known. All these cases, wherever found, were relieved and duly recorded. The necessitous or immedi-

ate relief cases comprised 482 families, and the amount paid on this class of claims amounted to $7,203.24.

A committee was also formed to secure houses, rooms, etc., for those who were rendered houseless and homeless through the disaster; and so quickly was this arranged that the committee were enabled to assign 151 families, comprising 448 persons, to homes at once, and remove the applicants thereto. And, in all cases where removal was had, the committee paid the rent for a month at least, as well as the expense of the removal of the sufferer.

By this system of investigation and the not giving out of any money, but orders, and delivering the necessities ourselves, the frauds which were first endeavored to be practised upon us were prevented; and after a few days, by the zeal of investigators, the necessitous cases were mainly relieved, and by the admirable system of filing the applications all fraud and duplication were prevented, and, as soon as this was known and seen by those contemplating imposition, it almost entirely ceased.

The investigators were instructed to keep a close watch on all urgent cases, and see that the required relief was administered promptly and before the real necessity arose for it. This being accomplished, the investigators returned (indorsed on the back of their duplicates) the relief given, and the names of those on whom orders were given and amount, and these in turn were indorsed on the original application, which was indexed and numbered and bound in books of one hundred, so that on turning to index and number the original application, the full statement of the case, and what had been done regarding it up to within a few hours, would be seen at a glance.

As the original application was the original entry, a system of ledger accounts for each individual case was rendered unnecessary, and thus clerical work was reduced to a minimum, the relief given being indorsed on the original application the instant the investigator returned the duplicates to the office.

The duplicates, receipts, orders, etc., that were paid, and all papers pertaining thereto, were filed in envelopes having numbers corresponding to the original application. Furniture blanks, property loss blanks, bank checks for losses paid after their return from bank, were all filed in the envelope referred to; and at this time the books into which the original applications were bound have been cut from the binding, and the original applications themselves are now in

these envelopes, and they furnish the complete history from the beginning of the work to its ending in every particular, and can be referred to by any one at a moment's notice.

By this method, the accumulation of papers and documents so often seen in a work of this kind is reduced to a minimum; and the entire work of the Relief Committee is now comprised in a case of pigeonholes of about three feet by four, and is labelled on the outside "The Tornado Work of the Board of Trade Relief Committee of 1890."

In some few days after the occurrence, all the necessitous cases were practically relieved; and the committee have yet to hear of one case in all the 1,194 applications, numbering 4,281 persons, where suffering ensued from a neglect of the committee's work. So thorough was the work done by the agents of the Louisville Charity Organization Society, and by their method of searching up cases, that at the end of about ten days this branch of the work virtually ceased.

A committee called "Permanent Relief Committee" was appointed, and their duty was to see in person the family or relatives of all those who had lost by death any member of the family, and also those who were injured. The injured were taken to homes, hospitals, and asylums, doctors assigned to them, and all the expenses where the sufferers were not able to pay the same were defrayed by this committee.

A report in writing as to the circumstances and conditions of the family and all necessary particulars regarding the same was made; and it was found that, of the 76 persons killed, 38 were persons on whom the family depended as the "bread-winner." The committee set aside in the hands of the chairman as trustee a sum of money, subject always to the control of the Board of Trade, sufficient to pay each family or persons so dependent from $20 to $30 a month for a period of eighteen months, and the permanently injured (13 cases) a sum of like amount for from three to twelve months, according to the best judgment of the doctors attending upon the case. In addition to this, all the charges for burials (57 cases) and medical attendance on these parties were paid by this committee. It was found that $17,201.45 was required to settle this class of claims.

A committee was also appointed to investigate the losses to furniture and clothing. On reference to the original application, these cases were shown; and of course thereon were the names and addresses of applicants. A suitable blank was prepared by the committee covering this class of claims; and these blanks were placed in

the hands of agents of the Louisville Charity Organization Society and other investigators, who visited the applicants personally, and obtained from them a list of articles lost, the value they put on them, and what they, the applicants, considered they should have to replace them.

The investigator satisfied himself by viewing the remains of the wrecked furniture or house where the wreck occurred and put down his estimate of loss. When all these losses were investigated and supervised by the Executive Committee, the losses were paid by check. In cases where it was not thought advisable to pay by check, orders were given on furniture and house-furnishing houses; and, in order that the applicant should not suffer from overcharge of price, the committee had requested houses dealing in such goods (who would sell the same at a small advance on cost) to send in their names, and a list of such houses being furnished on a blank was handed to every applicant, and thus money was saved to him.

After the furniture losses of 453 families were adjusted and paid in full to the amount of $29,164.68 the Executive Committee took up the question of rebuilding and repairing the homes of those wrecked who were themselves unable to rebuild or repair the same. For this purpose, the original application was again referred to; and a blank covering property losses and asking questions as to ownership of property, mortgage on the same, etc., was prepared, and sent to the applicant, with a returned stamped envelope addressed to the chairman. When these were received, they were taken to the city assessor, who in turn indorsed thereon whether or not the party owned the property, its assessed value, and whether the party owned any other property, real or personal, and amount of the same. These were handed to the Building and Investigating Committee, composed of two master-builders and two carpenters; and, whenever necessary, an architect was called in, who visited each house, and on the same blank indorsed what they believed the property was damaged or could be repaired for, and submitted the same in writing. These were in turn passed upon by the Executive Committee; and, where doubts still remained, the applicant was sent for and a new investigation made.

A good many applications were made by parties who it was found owned other property than that destroyed, and several applications were made by parties for compensation to property other than homesteads (*i.e.*, business property). These the committee disallowed;

but, in the other cases reported upon by the Building Committee, the application was agreed to, and the result is that the committee restored and rebuilt 311 homes at a cost of $71,435.59.

Thus the committee paid all the necessitous cases, all injured cases, settled a permanent fund on those losing the wage-earning member of the family, paid all funeral expenses, and paid in full all losses of furniture, and put back the homes of all those who could not themselves repair the loss. In other words, Louisville paid in full all losses sustained by the tornado by those who could not themselves do so.

The committee did not attempt to compensate losses of merchandise. They held that mercantile losses were beyond their province, and the funds given them as charity were not intended to be used for any such purpose.

In regard to the financial portion of the question, there was received a grand total of $156,045.76, of which amount $5,000 was appropriated by the legislature of the State, $20,000 by the council of the city of Louisville, $15,547.05 by voluntary subscriptions outside the State, and the balance, $115,498.71, was from our own citizens.

There was expended for the relief of those outside of the city of Louisville (in the county) from this fund a sum of $16,070.50, which, it will be seen, was larger than the amount received from outside sources. In other words, Louisville paid out for relief outside her own city from her contributions a sum of money in excess of that received from outside sources. She in addition paid back to the city her subscription of $20,000, after having paid all her losses in full; and there remains to the credit of the Relief Fund a small sum of money which has been passed into the General Relief Fund of the Board of Trade, and will be kept there in the event of any calamity of a like nature occurring.

All this was accomplished through systematic and painstaking work, and the entire cost of the distribution of this fund was about one per cent. of the amount of the subscription.

Every great disaster, like every great emergency, brings its own solution to adjust itself. Suddenly, as though by a stroke from the hand of the Almighty, on the night of March 27 the people of Louisville found themselves face to face with this terrible calamity. The home of the rich, the modest cottage of the poor, the sacred precincts of the sanctuary, the massive walls of the warehouse and factory.

were levelled to the ground, and underneath the ruins lay the bleeding and lifeless bodies of the old man and the maiden, the little child and its mother; while, as if to add to the helplessness of man, the toll of the fire-bell announced a new horror. For more than two miles through the populous portion of our city, the Storm King marked his course by the wrecks of human habitation. That a great disaster had befallen the city, that a great emergency had arisen, who could doubt?

Often had our people read of disasters from fire, from flood, from storms, and from pestilence; often had they contributed liberally of their means for the help of others; often had they thrown open wide their doors to those fleeing from the pestilence; but never before had they been brought to face a disaster of such magnitude at their own doors.

In less than forty-eight hours, representatives of sister cities were upon the ground, full of sympathy, and authorized to respond to the call of suffering to an unlimited amount. Every mail and telegraph wire brought messages from other cities and communities. Even Johnstown, so recently and so sorely tried, came forward voluntarily with her sympathy and assistance.

Thank God for the spirit of sympathy which pulsates through every vein of this great Nation, which, although at times swayed by contending parties and sectional animosities, in the face of any great disaster knows no North, no South, no East, and no West! Hundreds of thousands of dollars were generously and gratuitously tendered, and thousands more could have been had by an appeal to the country.

What would the great city of two hundred thousand inhabitants do? Would she accept the munificent gifts so freely and spontaneously tendered? Was she truly an object of charity?

The aid tendered was not intended to pauperize her. But could she accept without being pauperized? Could she, by accepting it, certify that it was truly needed, without first measuring the height and depth, the length and breadth, of her misfortune? Could she, with proper self-respect, take aid from another without first exhausting her own resources?

The great principles underlying all true charity teach us that the man who accepts alms, when by his own efforts he can do without it, has disgraced himself, not only in the eyes of the world, but in his own estimation. He has sacrificed the noblest sentiment of his

nature. And what is true of the individual is true of the community at large.

The people of Louisville were not long in deciding upon the course they would follow. Promptly, with sentiments of profound appreciation and gratitude, they said: "No: we will stand shoulder to shoulder, hand in hand, and in line with the motto of our State shield, 'United, we stand: divided, we fall.' Unless true to ourselves, we cannot be true to others. If we fail,— and that word does not belong to our vocabulary,— then we will accept your noble offer, but not until then."

The result is before you. No relief from other municipalities, no relief from the public treasury, every dollar from her generous people and individual friends; and to-day the fair City of the Falls stands erect among her noble sisters, self-respecting, self-reliant. Her business houses, her homes, and her churches rebuilt or in rapid course of restoration, her dead buried by a generous public, those bereft of the wage-earner provided for, her poor housed and clothed; and, not only so, she has gone further, and taken under her care the many unfortunates living in the outlying districts, and extended to them the same relief afforded to her own people.

For six years she has sustained her Charity Organization, and by practical demonstration has enforced the truths of the great principles underlying the true administration of relief.

When the disaster came, she had the principles well in hand, the men to do the work, and a generous public to sustain it.

In less than fifty days (which without organization would not have been accomplished in many months) she has practically restored the losses of her people, rebuilt the ruined homes, and closed the books.

Such is the crowning glory of the principles advocated by this great assembly; and, in the name of the people of the city of Louisville, I to-day thank you for their introduction into our midst.

CHARITY FROM THE STANDPOINT OF THE KNIGHTS OF LABOR.

BY JAMES G. SCHONFARBER, BALTIMORE.

When we see conventions like this, with delegates from so many sections of the country, when papers are prepared by some of the ablest minds and discussed before such bodies, when large sums of money and much time are given,— all with the intention of alleviating the miserable condition of our fellow-men,— we may safely assume that some of our fellow-men are in a deplorable condition.

It is understood that you have met "to consider the best methods of administering charity, of preventing pauperism, of reforming criminals, and abolishing crime."

It is an established fact that the want of common food, clothing, and shelter, and the fear of such want, cast a gloomy shadow over the homes of three-fourths of the people: it is this fear of want that has lowered the standard of morality in business. Men lie, cheat, and steal, and, if successful, are honored as shrewd, far-seeing business men.

In this century, production has been wonderfully increased by improvements in machinery; yet the workingman is painfully conscious that he gets no share in the increase. He works ten of the twenty-four hours, and often more than that. Labor is imperfectly organized. The wealthy take little interest in the poor. The bakers of New York City recently sent five hundred circulars to the clergymen of that city, appealing for their assistance "to relieve the bakers of Sunday work," and received answers from "half a dozen." A crystallized selfishness seems to pervade the compact, if not organized, "classes," as against the segregated and unorganized and perhaps quite as selfish "masses." The "middle class" is gradually disappearing, and the tendency is toward a plutocracy on the one hand and a *prolétaire* on the other.

While the Knights of Labor recognize the necessity for and commend the efforts of the charity organizations in attempting to alleviate the sufferings of the deserving poor, yet we have always thought it strange that you — men and women of intelligence, with broad minds and open hearts — had never asked yourselves "if there is

not something radically wrong in that system which compels men willing to work to stand idle and poverty-stricken in the midst of plenty."

In the preamble of the Knights of Labor is this declaration: "The alarming development and aggressiveness of the power of great capitalists and corporations under the present industrial system will inevitably lead to the pauperization and hopeless degradation of the toiling masses. It is imperative, if we desire to enjoy the full blessings of life, that unjust accumulation and the power for evil of aggregated wealth shall be prevented. This much desired object can be accomplished only by the united efforts of those who obey the divine injunction, 'In the sweat of thy face shalt thou eat bread.'"

Therefore, we have formed the Order of the Knights of Labor, for the purpose of organizing, educating, and directing the power of the industrial masses. It is from this standpoint that Knights of Labor must discuss the work of charity organizations. Let me quote: —

> Poverty will exist as long as the world lasts, but pauperism can be and ought to be eradicated. What is more sacred to a man than the purity of his boy or the virtue of his girl? and yet the pauper will see that boy and girl crowded together in the same room and in the same bed, like the beasts that perish, until no sense of shame even remains, when that purity and that virtue need only a slight exertion on his part for their preservation. What is more dear to a man than his independence and self-respect? and yet you can meet the pauper daily at the corner of the street, begging that you will tear the badge of freedom from his brow and brand upon it the stigma of the pauper. With the feeling of independence and self-respect gone, there is no power of self-regeneration in the pauper; and it is only by the helping hand of true charity that the regeneration can be commenced and the man brought back to a sense of independence and self-respect. This, my friends, is the proposed work of the Charity Organization Society. It is the gospel of humanity that we are trying to preach and the parable of the good Samaritan that we are trying to put in practice. It is simply the Master's work; and it means the helping care of those who are *now hardly entitled to the crumbs*, and their elevation to a seat and to a part in the children's portion at their Father's table.

These quotations are from an address by Mr. John Glenn at the meeting of the Conference on Charities held in Baltimore April 15 and 16, 1887. We are aware that they only express the opinions of one of your members; but they so well represent the position of

members of charitable organizations generally that we could not refrain from repeating them.

We agree with you that for the man unable to find employment there is no immediate remedy but that assistance and relief which will prevent him from falling lower in the scale of humanity. We disagree with you in this: you seem to assume that, as poverty exists, God, the all-wise Creator, has decreed that it shall always exist. In the remarks just quoted, we see that "poverty will exist as long as the world lasts"; and the text, "The poor ye have always with you," has been often used to excuse and sustain the existing condition of things. Is the gentleman whose remarks we have quoted aware that there are thousands of men who work hard, when they can secure employment, compelled to live in one or two rooms, with their families herded together like cattle; that children are born, live, and die in these narrow homes, where there can be no privacy, and where only by the most earnest efforts can children be saved from moral death? Remember, ladies and gentlemen, we are not speaking of paupers, but of hard-working men and their families. Let us quote from Father Huntington, an Episcopal minister, who has lived with these people, and who is qualified to speak with authority: "And who are the people that crowd these tenements? Perhaps it will be thought that the very badness of the condition of such places shows that these people are all 'filthy and debased creatures,' and that, therefore, very little can be done for them. Men will be inclined to dismiss the whole matter with a shrug of the shoulders and an impatient sigh. It is all very dreadful, no doubt; but there will always be base, corrupt people. They naturally herd together; they create their own misery. If you root them out of one locality, they will simply transfer themselves and their brutality and vice to some other. No doubt there are such people in tenement houses, but that they represent the body of the tenement-house population I entirely deny. Side by side with these poor outcasts of humanity are hard-working men and women who are leading heroic lives of purity and nobility. They are fighting at fearful odds to keep themselves and their children from the filth and pollution all about them." This, of course, was written about New York; but our own fair city is threatened with the same condition, as are all other large cities.

In all charitable literature it is assumed that poverty is the natural lot of the masses. The members of charity organizations, and even ministers of the gospel, take it for granted that this is the

condition which the Creator intended for many of his children. It is to this assumption that we take exception; and, while we endeavor to assist our brothers in distress, we insist that the masses must be educated, in order to abolish the necessity for charity as now understood. With the Fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man as a religious foundation, we insist that it is justice that is wanted, not charity. From this standpoint, we have formulated a platform demanding certain legislation. The two planks which have become burning questions are the fourth and eighteenth.

The eighteenth is: "That the government shall obtain possession, by purchase, under the right of eminent domain, of all telegraphs, telephones, and railroads, and that thereafter no charter or license be issued to any corporation for construction or operation of any means of transporting intelligence, passengers, or freight." It is almost universally conceded that there can be no real competition in a natural monopoly for any length of time. To secure equality to all, these natural monopolies must be under the control of the government; and we believe it is only a question of a very short time when this demand will be granted.

The fourth plank is: "That the land, including all natural resources of wealth, is the heritage of all the people, and should not be subject to speculative traffic. Occupancy and use should be the only title to the possession of land. Taxes upon land should be levied upon its full value for use, exclusive of improvements, and should be sufficient to take for the community all the unearned increment."

The Knights of Labor claim that the enactment into law of these two demands would remove the cause for charity. What the fourth plank, if put into practical effect, would do, is this: No land has any value until two men want it. When five hundred thousand people settle in a city like Baltimore, the value given by the five hundred thousand is unearned by the individuals, who claim to own the land of Baltimore. We propose to take for the community the value conferred by the community. This would make the man who is holding land out of use, or putting it to inferior use, abandon it to some one who would use it and pay the taxes. This would have the effect of opening opportunities to thousands of men now unable to find remunerative employment. Wages would rise, for no man would work for another for less than he could make by working for himself or by co-operating with his fellows. The man that occupied the best lot in Baltimore would pay the highest price to the city, to be used for the

good of all. The rich idler's power would be gone. The monopoly of land, the mother of all other monopolies, destroyed, man would once more stand erect. Involuntary poverty would be banished from the face of the earth. There would be no paupers. When you can say to a pauper, "Go to work: you have an equal opportunity with all others," there will be no excuse for pauperism. For the blind, the deformed, the afflicted, asylums could be provided, not as an act of charity by philanthropic ladies and gentlemen, but as an act of justice by the people. Let us, in conclusion, urge the members of this organization to continue to alleviate distress, but to look for something better than charity,— justice. A well-known writer has said that "behind every social problem there is a social wrong"; and we hope the charitable ladies and gentlemen will bend their energies to righting the wrongs that are the cause of all the ills that afflict humanity, and not stop with palliating wrongs by relieving the distress of those who seek work, but find it not; who would be men, in every sense of the word, if they had but the opportunity.

IV.

State Charities.

STATE BOARDS OF CHARITIES.

BY FRED H. WINES.

The attention of the Conference has so often been called to the utility of State Boards of Public Charities that there is very little or nothing which is new to be said upon the subject. Neither have there been during the past year any noteworthy changes in the number, constitution, or *personnel* of such boards in States in which they exist.

It is to be presumed that the reason for continuing the standing committee on State Boards is that the propriety of establishing them is under discussion in a number of States, both in the East and in the West, especially in California, Oregon, Colorado, and Maryland; and the friends of the movement in Maryland hope that something may be said on the present occasion which will be of service to them, both in the way of creating public sentiment in favor of such a board and of indicating the lines upon which it should be organized and do its work.

An unbroken chain of State Boards of Public Charities now stretches its length from Massachusetts to South Dakota. They have been created and are maintained in the following States, namely: Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Kansas, South Dakota, and North Carolina. These fifteen States contain the bulk of the population of our country; and they expend, in proportion to their population, an even larger amount relatively of the public money.

The powers of these boards and their duties are not in all States the same, but depend upon local conditions and upon the temper of the legislatures by which they are created. In three States, Rhode Island, Kansas, and South Dakota, they have executive powers and

functions. In these States, their relations to the institutions under their charge are those of a board of control, in whose name the property of the institutions is held; and they have the disbursement of all moneys belonging to them, and the appointment of all officers and employees and the establishment of rules for their government, subject, of course, to such limitations as may be expressed in the laws under which they operate. There is a similar board of contro in the State of Wisconsin, which is entirely distinct from the Wisconsin Board of Charities and Reform. All of these are, so to speak, consolidated boards of trustees, having charge not of single institutions, as is the usual practice, but of a number of institutions with different superintendents and otherwise entirely distinct from each other. In Rhode Island, all of the State institutions are on a large farm, known as the "State Farm," at Howard, a few miles from Providence.

There are, of course, arguments which may be advanced in favor of such consolidated control, even in Kansas and Wisconsin, where the institutions are in different localities, widely remote from each other; and these arguments are not without weight. But the generally received opinion is that it is better, all things considered, that each institution should have its own trustees, entirely devoted to its interests, and that the central supervising board should possess as little executive authority or power as possible.

The managers of an institution are, in the eye of the law, the institution. Many of the advantages of a State Board, as such a board is commonly understood, are therefore lost, if there is no intermediate authority between the managers and the legislature, the governor, and the people. Rhode Island is so small a State, that the system may there be presumed to work satisfactorily in all respects. But in the larger States, it is hardly conceivable that a single board will identify itself sufficiently with the institutions under its control, or it will be tempted to favor some of them at the expense of others. The members of the board can scarcely give to the institutions the amount of attention which they require, unless they receive compensation for their services. The moment that such compensation attaches to the position, it becomes a political prize, to be given as a reward for political services; and the chances are that it will fall into the hands of men less unselfish and disinterested than the ideal character of this service would indicate as the proper men to whom to intrust it. There is also a possibility, if not a probability, that

the members, in proportion to their conscientiousness, will feel that they ought not to receive money which they do not earn; and, in order to satisfy themselves on this point, they will take into their own hands many of the details of administration and management which should be confided to the superintendent directly in charge.

The natural tendency of the system would seem to be to derogate from the authority of the superintendent, to divide the responsibility which should be concentrated in a single official, and thus to impair that unity of purpose and of action which is essential to the best disciplinary results. But, even if this were not so, there cannot be under that system the kind and degree of accountability for official conduct in the management of institutions, which are secured in States where the contrary system has been adopted. It is not to be expected that the managers of an institution will report their own failings and mistakes, or that they will be impartial critics of their own official conduct. Without an intermediate board, whose function it is to inspect and to criticise the management, pecuniary and other, abuses are likely to grow up, unchecked and unexposed, until they come to a head, and a public scandal is the consequence.

We therefore incline to the opinion that it may be more expedient to leave the control of public institutions of a State in the hands of purely local boards of trustees, rather than to intrust it to a single board with full executive power and control. The wiser course, however, seems to us to be that which eleven States have adopted,— namely, to give to each institution a complete autonomy; that is, to make each of them an independent corporation, with an independent board of management, in which all executive authority and responsibility are concentrated; and then to create a supervisory board of inspection, and make it the centre of the entire charitable system, the agency by which all its parts are to be co-ordinated and brought into harmonious relations with each other. It is in this latter sense that we must be understood when we speak, in the present report, of boards of public charities. We do not refer at all to boards organized upon the principle which we have here just condemned.

The powers usually conferred by the legislature upon these boards are as follows: —

(1) The right to inspect and report upon the management of State institutions, including the right of access to all portions of their premises, and the right to examine all books and papers, to administer oaths, and to interrogate officers, employees, and inmates.

(2) The right to visit and inspect the municipal and county institutions, both jails and almshouses, in the same manner and to the same extent as the institutions belonging to the State itself.

(3) In some States, the State Board has a similar right to visit private charitable institutions; or, if not, it may require reports from them, giving direct answers to such questions as they may see fit to ask. But this power is not universal, nor is it even general.

(4) The right to prescribe forms of statistical and other reports, in order that the information obtained from different institutions may be so tabulated as to admit of comparisons between them, in respect of their cost and of the results of such expenditure.

(5) The right to advise the governor and the legislature as to all questions of legislation affecting their usefulness to the people of the State, and particularly to the class for whose benefit they are more immediately designed.

(6) In some of the older States, where the laws of settlement are more rigidly observed than in younger communities, a class of paupers is recognized who have no local settlement, and who have, therefore, no claim upon any particular locality to support, but who may have a right based upon long residence in the State at large or upon the claims of humanity. These are known as State paupers, and an appropriation is made annually for their relief, which is confided to the State Board, which acts in the capacity of overseers of the poor, so far as these State paupers are in question, and possesses all the power and is subject to all the responsibilities respecting them, which devolve upon local overseers with reference to paupers who have a local settlement.

(7) In States which contain ports of immigration, these boards are sometimes called upon to act, under contract with the federal government, in the capacity of immigration commissioners, which they can do with advantage, for the reason that they are then in a position to check the importation of foreign paupers, lunatics, and criminals, which it is also their interest as public guardians to do.

(8) In some States, they exercise the power and functions of commissioners in lunacy, and have general oversight of the administration of the lunacy laws in their relation to all insane persons, whether inmates of public or private institutions or not.

(9) In the State of Illinois, the State Board is charged with the duty of auditing all of the institution accounts, and its approval of them is essential, before the institutions can draw from the public

treasury additional instalments of the ordinary or special appropriations made in their behalf and for their benefit.

There may be some States in which powers are exercised by the central board of supervision which have not been quoted. But the foregoing list is sufficiently complete. In the establishment of a State Board in any State, the question which of these powers shall be conferred upon it by law must of course be determined by the local situation. The right to inspect and report upon the management of State institutions is essential, and it should be without any restrictions. The right to visit and inspect the municipal and county institutions is almost equally important. The truth is that these minor institutions usually need inspection more than those which are owned and controlled by the State, and the benefit of such inspection is more immediately apparent. Whether any particular classes of institutions shall be exempted from visitation, is a question concerning which there has been more or less discussion. In the States of New York and of Illinois, prisons receiving State aid are so exempted. The superintendents of institutions for the education of the deaf and of the blind have advanced the claim that their institutions are not charitable, but educational, in their character, and that they should be connected with the public school system; and in Massachusetts this claim has been conceded. It is equally conceivable that there might be in some State a board of lunacy commissioners, whose inspection of the institutions for the insane is sufficiently thorough to be satisfactory to the legislature and to the people; and, in that event, the insane hospitals and asylums might be exempted from the jurisdiction of the State Board of Public Charities. But it is evident that the influence and value of the work of the board must be impaired by all such exceptions to its inquisitorial power. A large portion of its work should consist in examining the economy of the system of public institutions, which can only be judged by comparisons. These comparisons require to be of two sorts: first, between the several institutions of the State; and, second, between the institutions of the same class in different States. The smaller the area of comparison, the less will be the value of the result.

From a financial point of view, it matters nothing to the legislature whether the institutions for which it has to make appropriations are educational, eleemosynary, medical, or penal and reformatory. Whatever may be the distinctions between them, they constitute, when taken together, a department of a State government, whose aggregate

cost it is important to know, as well as the comparative analysis of the expenditures made on this account. In order to full comparison of expenditure, by items, the institution accounts must be kept on an absolutely uniform system, and the statements rendered must be classified, by items, under certain general heads, which must correspond for all the institutions. In order that this desirable end may be attained, some central authority must have the power to prescribe the forms of accounts and of financial statements. We are unable to see why the rendering of these accounts to a central board of inspection, by whatever name it may be called, creates any closer affiliation between institutions with different objects than would result from their having to render these same statements to a State auditor or comptroller of public accounts.

It is sometimes said that there is nothing in common between a school for the deaf, a hospital for the insane, a soldiers' home, and a State prison; but this is not true. There are certain principles of architectural construction, which have to be observed in the erection of all public buildings for the care and custody of any considerable number of inmates; there are certain principles of organization, discipline, and financial management, which apply to all institutions alike, whatever may be their special character and aim. The relations of all of them to the State government are essentially similar. The more institutions there are under the control of a central board, the more it will know upon the problems involved in all such questions, for instance, as those of heating, lighting, and ventilation; of sanitation, including diet, sewerage, etc.; and of many others which might be named, which relate both to the internal and external life of an institution.

The study of social questions by the comparative method may be said to resemble that of botany or of comparative anatomy. If a botanist were denied the privilege of examining a rose, because a rose is not a cabbage, how long would it take him to master the science of botany? Of course, a rose is not a cabbage; but both roses and cabbages are subdivisions of the vegetable kingdom. In the same sense, institutions with different specific objects are all grouped under the general head of institutions. They are all created and maintained for the cure or prevention of social evils of some description,— it may be of ignorance, of disease, of poverty, or of crime but all social evils grow out of general social conditions, and they cannot be successfully studied except in their mutual relations. It

may be taken for granted that a board familiar with institutions of all descriptions will not lose sight of the differences between them in its perception of their points of general resemblance.

The relation of a State Board of Public Charities to the government, in all its branches — legislative, executive, and judicial, is that of a counsellor. It is the confidential adviser of the governor and other State officers who have to deal with the State institutions; of the legislative committees, to which measures affecting their usefulness are referred for consideration; of the municipal and county authorities, who often have occasion to consult with it as to the development and improvement of purely local charitable institutions; and of the officers in charge of the State institutions, including both the superintendents and the trustees. Its work may be divided, broadly speaking, into two branches, namely: first, giving advice; and, second, qualifying itself to give advice. Its functions as an advisory board will be impaired by conferring upon it executive power, in the same sense and to the same extent as an attorney would be injured in his professional career by requiring him to perform the work of a book-keeper. Like the attorney-general, it cannot, as a rule, volunteer its counsel: it waits to give it until it is asked. But it must always be ready to give it. It must have an opinion, and it must know upon what foundation that opinion rests. It must know the institutions under its jurisdiction and the officers in charge of them, not superficially, but thoroughly, so as to be able to form a correct judgment of them in all particulars. It must know the classes for whose benefit these institutions are created, what can be done for them, what has been done for them, elsewhere as well as within the State, and what ought to be done for them. It must know enough of law, medicine, morals, finance, education, the arts and sciences, and of theoretical and practical politics, to be prepared to express a sound judgment upon any question affecting public policy in any direction which implies such knowledge, so far as relates to the treatment of the unfortunate or of criminals. In order that it may obtain the knowledge which is essential to its highest usefulness, it must be composed of men of intelligence, of education, of social experience, familiar with public life, interested in the public welfare, whose personal character for integrity and devotion is above question. It must not depend upon its general information, but must travel, for the purpose of observing the operation of charitable and correctional systems outside of the limits of its own State; it must read the reports

and documents which contain the facts and suggestions most important for its consideration and guidance; and it must deeply reflect upon what it has seen and read. It must be ready to take every opportunity to meet with fellow-students of the same general class of questions, wherever they may be found. It assumes great responsibility, and it is bound in honor and in conscience to discharge it to the very best of its ability.

If, in reply to this, it should be said that the members of a State Board of Charities are usually unpaid, and that they cannot be expected to render any large amount of gratuitous service, the answer to this objection is in the old legal maxim, "Qui facit per alium, facit per se." In other words, the act of the board's agent is the act of the board itself. It is, therefore, of the utmost consequence that the secretary of a State Board of Public Charities should be a man of high character, of more than ordinary ability, unselfish in his temperament, and wholly devoted to his work. The salary attached to the position should be sufficient to justify such a man in accepting it. He should be left as free as possible to develop his work in his own way, with such aid and suggestions as the board is able to give him; and he should be sustained by the governor, by the legislature, and by the public press, and retained in his position so long as he performs his duties in a satisfactory manner, regardless of political changes in the State administration.

Nothing is more disastrous to the proper administration of a charitable or correctional system than its complication with purely political considerations. The board, or its secretary, should of course be in attendance at every session of the legislature, for the purpose of observing the course of legislation, and of conferring with the various committees and with individual members as to questions, pending in either house, which affect the conduct of the public institutions and the care and treatment of the afflicted or delinquent classes. The relations between the legislature and the board should be those of mutual confidence and respect. The board should be courageous in the avowal of its convictions and in the defence of what it believes to be right, but not unnecessarily meddlesome, critical, or exacting. The legislature may commit some gross errors of judgment; but, nevertheless, it is the representative of the people, and in that capacity it can do no wrong, from a legal or political point of view. At least, it is responsible only to the people for its actions, and not to its creatures, of which the State Board must be

regarded as one. The possibility of influencing a legislature for good depends upon the discretion and tact of those who come into contact with it. If the legislature does not believe in the disinterestedness, wisdom, and, above all, in the truth and integrity of the man who represents this great interest, it will be impossible for him to accomplish anything.

Another branch of the work of a State Board consists in seeing that the laws governing the State institutions are enforced, and that all portions of the State receive an equal share in their benefits. Here, again, the power of the board is purely moral in its nature. It cannot issue any orders, it cannot institute any suits; but, if its view of the law is correct, and if the officers of the institutions know it to be sincere and impartial in presenting that view upon their attention, even where it may conflict with their own understanding of it, they will respect the recommendations of the board, though they may not adopt them. They will have certain knowledge that the board will report any differences of opinion which may exist to the legislature at its next session, and ask for its advice, and, if necessary, for additional legislation on the point in question. Under these circumstances, an institution is not likely to persist in a clear and direct violation of law; and the end sought, which is obedience, is accomplished more gently and more effectually than it would be by the more summary process of the courts. In the State of Illinois, the moral power of the board has been very largely enforced by giving it control of the purse-strings of the institutions to the following extent: the State Board audits the accounts, which have already been audited by the local trustees; and, if they are found incorrect or contrary to law, further payments from the State treasury are suspended, until the question at issue is adjusted. It is, we think, to be desired that other similar boards in other States should have like power conferred upon them.

It does not seem to be expedient to go into further details as to the methods of work adopted by the different boards. Of necessity, they vary according to the circumstances and conditions which govern them. A wise board, with a prudent and efficient secretary, whose desire is to know what is right and to do what is right, and to have others do right likewise, will find a way to secure the accomplishment of this purpose, in large part, if not altogether. We are certain that any State which will create a board of public charities and lay down general rules for its government on the lines which we

have indicated — give it very little absolute power, but the largest possible amount of discretion and freedom in its own actions — will reap the benefit, in the form of greater efficiency on the part of the benevolent and reformatory institutions of the State at a smaller relative cost. The only thing which can prevent this result will be a bad selection of commissioners on the part of the governor, and a mistake in the choice of a secretary on the part of the commissioners. Such a board can do a great deal in the way of preventing legislative and executive blunders, by bringing the fruits of past experience upon a broad scale to bear upon new enterprises, which are proposed sometimes with more zeal than information. It is especially important that such a board should be created at the earliest possible moment in the organization of a new State; for it is there that the largest relative amount of harm can be prevented by timely action, based upon accurate knowledge and broad but well-considered generalizations.

V.

Outdoor Relief.

INDOOR AND OUTDOOR RELIEF.

BY F. B. SANBORN, OF CONCORD, MASS.

At what precise time these terms came into use — Indoor Relief and Outdoor Relief — we cannot say; but they sprang up in England long ago, and were used to signify relief given to the public poor *inside* the parish workhouse, as distinguished from relief given to the same class *outside* the workhouse. Now, the whole universe could surely be divided into two (very unequal) parts; namely, the inside of the parish workhouse (at Barton-Regis, for instance) and all the rest of the world outside of that little edifice. Consequently, so far as the Guardians of the Poor in that parish were concerned, all aid given to their beneficiaries, except within their workhouse, was technically Outdoor Relief. But, then, they might be supporting insane persons in a county asylum, sick persons in one or more hospitals, blind and deaf persons in special schools, and others of the public poor in other places where they would be subject to restraint and discipline, perhaps as careful as that given in the parish workhouse; and the expense of the support of these different classes might be as strictly under the eye of public officers as if it were paid in the workhouse itself. There was and is, however, another class of public poor, who perhaps never enter a public establishment of any kind to reside there, but, when they receive aid from the Guardians of Barton-Regis, or any other functionaries, receive it either in money or food, or clothing, or tickets of some kind, or in some other mode coming under the general description of what the French call "Family Aid" (*Secours à Domicile*). Not that every one of the persons so aided, even in France, has, in fact, a domicile or a family; but he may profess to have them, and, at any rate, he is not inside of any public establishment.

It is this last class of persons, having nominally, at least, a home,

and perhaps persons dependent upon them, to whom, as we use the term in America, the phrase "Outdoor Relief" really applies; and this class is much smaller than would usually appear from the account of expenditure for outdoor relief in our official reports. For example, the State of Massachusetts has among its State Departments, drawing money from the State Treasury, one officially styled "The Department of Outdoor Poor"; and this department in the year ending Oct. 1, 1889, expended for all purposes about $110,000. It might be said, therefore, if one looked at names rather than things, that the State of Massachusetts was expending more than $100,000 a year for outdoor relief. But, in fact, nearly $26,000 of this sum was paid for the support of sick persons in a single hospital (the Boston City Hospital); and not less than $20,000 more was paid for the support of persons in other hospitals, in city and town almshouses, and in the Massachusetts Infant Asylum. There was also expended for burials (which might be reckoned a kind of outdoor relief, since they usually took place in the open air) $6,500; and a considerable sum was paid for the transportation of poor persons from one place to another. Making these deductions, the sum expended by Massachusetts for family aid, or outdoor relief, as we understand it, would fall from $110,000 to less than $50,000, not reckoning the salaries of the officers who carried on the department. These amounted, together with their travelling expenses, to nearly $18,000.

This will be a sufficient illustration of what is meant when we say that the reported outlay for aid to the poor in their own families is often much greater than the sum actually expended. A classification different from that of the English has sometimes been adopted, dividing the poor into persons *fully* supported and persons *partially* supported during the year. This classification, however, is hardly more exact than the terms of which we are speaking; for so many poor persons, including children and the harmless insane, have of late years been boarded in families that the money expended for full support would in many cases go to the heads of families, while the persons paid for might not be inside any public establishment during the whole year. Moreover, a difficult question arises as to what "full support" shall be. Shall a person who has been in an almshouse three days, or three weeks, be entered as fully supported? In other words, how long a period of support should be designated by the term "full support"? In Massachusetts we generally reckon all persons as fully supported who have been in an almshouse for a week. But

many of these same persons will also have been aided outside the almshouse, and in the families of themselves or other persons, at other times, during the year for which the report is made. So that the number of persons fully supported, when added to the number of those partially supported or aided, will always give too large an aggregate, in case the number of such class has been correctly counted, because there will be many who are reckoned in both classes.

It will thus be seen that, whether we speak of the whole expense of family aid (outdoor relief) or of the whole number who receive it, we cannot be sure that the official figures give us any accurate statement under either head. If it should be declared, for instance, that the number of persons receiving outdoor relief in Massachusetts last year was 48,123, as shown by returns from the towns and cities, or if we add 20,000 to this number for those aided in some way by the State Department of outdoor poor, it is not even probable that these are the correct figures. They can be only an approximation in any case, because there are so many duplications and omissions.

The tables of the United States Census do not give even an approximation to the statistical truth concerning the aggregate of the public poor, and their classification as to methods of relief. Thus the census of 1880 gave the whole number of the indoor and outdoor poor of Massachusetts on a given day (June 1, 1880) as only 5,423, of whom only 954 were outdoor paupers: whereas, by official State returns, much more exact than those of the census, there were one month later (July 1, 1880) at least 12,000 outdoor paupers receiving aid on that day, or more than a dozen times as many as the census enumerators reported. This number (12,000) is below the average of the outdoor poor in Massachusetts for ten years past, as shown by the careful State census taken twice a year by the State Board of Charity. And be it observed that, though we can only approximate to the whole number of different persons who in a year receive public aid in some form, we can obtain an average of their number at any given time with much exactness. Thus we know that in Massachusetts during the ten years ending April 1, 1889, the average number of persons partially supported, by what is commonly called outdoor relief, was at least 16,000; while the average number fully supported (mostly by indoor relief) has been less than 8,000. Yet the cost of maintaining the 8,000 persons has been more than $1,000,000 annually, while the cost of supporting the 16,000 outdoor paupers has been

less than $650,000 annually. The average annual cost of each outdoor pauper, or recipient of family aid, was less than $40 for a year of 52 weeks, while the average yearly cost of each indoor pauper was more than $139; and, if interest on the value of the almshouses, asylums, etc., where the indoor poor lived, were added, their yearly cost would go up to $180 at least, or four and one-half times as much as the cost of the outdoor poor.

Here we see one reason why outdoor relief is everywhere and always more common than indoor relief, — for the same sum of money a much greater number of the poor can be aided. But another cogent reason is that there never has been anywhere, and perhaps never will be, almshouses, workhouses, hospitals, and other places of indoor relief in sufficient number to contain all the poor at any season, or half of them in seasons of special destitution. Outdoor relief has, therefore, always existed, as the Tennessee lawyer observed in another connection, "from the *ex necessitate rei* of the thing." It would be idle to expect the farmer to barrel all his apples if he could only find barrels enough for half of them; and it is equally unreasonable to expect a community to put all its paupers into public buildings, if there is room in those buildings for less than a third part of them, which is the fact.

The "workhouse test," as it used to be called in England, by which a poor man was compelled either to go to the workhouse or go without public relief altogether, cannot be applied in these modern times very strictly for another reason. Not only are there not workhouses enough to hold them, if all should go, but there are whole classes for whom it would be a bad place. It would be bad for children, for the insane in general, for idiotic women, for the sick who require nourishing and stimulating treatment, for the blind and the deaf, for the epileptics, and so on. Establishments for these special classes, and many more, have sprung up, where a hundred years ago only the workhouse or almshouse could be found. Perhaps we do not realize how large a part of our public poor are insane, and that this part is increasing faster than any other. Among 10,525 paupers fully supported in Massachusetts in 1888 (January), 4,316 were insane; and out of 10,453 in July, 1889, 4,709 were insane. The proportion of the insane to the sane poor is here about as four to five; while twenty-five years ago it was much less than this. If all the idiotic and mentally defective poor were added to the insane, the whole number in Massachusetts would be found quite equal to that of

the sane poor who are fully supported. But, of those partially supported, the largest number are children; and comparatively few of them are insane or idiotic.

Of course the insane poor generally require a more costly treatment than sane persons, except those suffering with severe physical disease. Indeed, the rate of cost for the ten or fifteen distinct classes into which the poor who are fully supported may be divided varies so much that it is hardly possible to fix a uniform rate for their support. Nor, if it were feasible, would it be desirable; for some of these classes require costly training, others require costly nursing, while others, if properly supervised, are almost self-supporting. That mythical class, the "able-bodied poor," are scarcely found in this country in public establishments, except for a few months in the cold season, when the number of employments, both for men and women, is considerably reduced by Nature herself.

Until recently, in the English-speaking countries, it was believed that the insane, whether rich or poor, could only be cared for properly in special establishments, which therefore were provided in great and increasing number in every civilized community of dense population. But the method of family aid (outdoor relief) has been found applicable, and very beneficial, to a large class of the insane in Scotland, where they are boarded in families to the number of two thousand or upwards. The same method had long before been adopted in Belgium, and five years ago was introduced by statute in Massachusetts, where a small number of the insane are now boarding in rural families (but sometimes in cities), with much comfort to themselves, and oftentimes a considerable improvement in their mental condition. It is also becoming more and more the practice in New England, and perhaps elsewhere, to treat recent insanity in families, under medical care, rather than to send the patients to a great asylum, where forced association with many other insane persons may do them as much harm as good.

Nevertheless, the insane, whether rich or poor, must *generally* be maintained in public establishments, and the method in use for those who are paupers must be that of indoor relief. But it will be found, we suspect, that many of the charges made and reported in the United States as outdoor relief were really incurred for the indoor support of insane persons in asylums, children in county homes, young offenders in reformatories, and others who really belong to the indoor class, but for special reasons have the outlay for them mixed

up with the general expenses of outdoor relief. This has certainly been the case in Massachusetts, as it was for many years in England.

Until within a few years, it has not been customary in England to reckon the insane poor in county asylums as subjects of indoor relief; but their cost, amounting to many hundred thousand pounds, was included in the reported expenditure for outdoor relief. Yet no class of the poor was more strictly *indoor*, or more fully supported without family aid, than these insane paupers. In regard to other classes of the English poor, Mr. Goschen, the eminent statesman, when president of the old poor-law board, twenty years ago, said: "It cannot be denied that the more humane views which have prevailed during the last few years, as to the treatment of the sick poor, have added most materially to poor-law expenditures. Workhouses, originally designed mainly as a test for the able-bodied, have, especially in the large towns, been of necessity gradually transformed into infirmaries for the sick; and the higher standard for hospital accommodations has had a material effect upon the expenditures." The process here mentioned by Mr. Goschen has gone on still more rapidly, in Great Britain and everywhere else, since 1870, and in the natural course of events will go on indefinitely. For it is found that the greatest success in dealing with the poor is obtained by classifying them according to their real character and needs, and not by herding them together in a common receptacle for all forms of poverty.

In making the broad, general distinction between two main classes of the public poor, it would seem to be natural and proper to begin with that class which has not been withdrawn from the natural home of all mankind,—the family. There are persons, be the number greater or less, who need public relief at their own homes, and who can receive it there with greater advantage both to themselves and to the public than anywhere else. Oftentimes these are persons who have a little property, which would be sacrificed or diminished in value if they were removed, even for six weeks, to an almshouse, hospital, or insane asylum. Concerning this class of persons, that excellent economist, the younger Pitt, said in Parliament, in 1796: "The law which prohibits giving relief where any visible property remains should be abolished. That degrading condition should be withdrawn. No temporary occasion should force a British subject to part with the last shilling of his little capital, and to descend to a state of wretchedness from which he could never recover, merely

that he might be entitled to a casual supply." What Mr. Pitt said concerning a British subject is none the less true when applied to free American citizens. Great care should be taken, in relieving their distresses, not to throw them into the great class of vagrant and homeless poor, to which belong many of the inmates of our public establishments, when they go forth from an almshouse, a hospital, an insane asylum, or a prison, into the general community.

Let us, then, adopt as the starting-point of our system of public charities what the French call *Secours à Domicile*, and what we have termed "Family" or "Household Aid." The family in question may be that of the poor person himself, or it may be some family into which he has been adopted as child or boarder. Make the number of these family cases as small as you please, but let it be, as by the great law of nature it must be, the initial point of public charity.

Starting, then, from this focus of the family, let the scheme of indoor relief be laid down on a broader scale than has been done theoretically, in England, until very recently; and let it be a scheme capable, as it should be, of indefinite expansion, as civilization advances. By the old "workhouse test," a dozen classes of the public poor were thrown together, higgledy-piggledy, in the great wards of the old-fashioned poorhouse. The healthy infant, the diseased foundling, the children of school age, the idiotic and sickly children, deaf and blind children, epileptics, the maimed and deformed, sick persons of all age, and every variety of disease, from the most transient to the most chronic, loathsome, and contagious; idiots and insane persons, tramps, rogues, prostitutes, pickpockets, vagrants of every class, professional beggars, impostors of all kinds,— these, and other varieties of the wretched, the fraudulent, and the vicious, were brought together, with more or less separation according to sex and age, in the same building that sheltered the aged poor, who had been all their lives honest and respectable, and would support themselves, if they could, wherever placed. One reason why family aid has been carried, especially in cities, to such an extent as to prove an abuse — and sometimes a very great abuse — was the desire to prevent the breaking up of families, the corruption of the young, and the unspeakable distress of the old and the virtuous, by throwing them into forced association with the dregs of mankind, in what was ironically termed a charitable establishment. Indoor relief can never be what it should be until separate provision, on a reasonable scale, is made for all the main classes of the distressed, helpless, and vicious poor.

The ancient fallacy concerning outdoor relief, then, was to suppose that the workhouse and its immediate adjuncts could be made, under ordinary circumstances, to receive all the cases of poverty which might otherwise be provided for in families. The modern fallacy is not to take notice of the obvious fact that indoor relief, as we now practise it, is an indefinite extension, in a much better mode, of the old workhouse facilities for restraining, disciplining, and aiding the poor. So far as experience can teach anything, it teaches us that both indoor relief (in its extended form) and family aid, or outdoor relief, as properly practised, are both indispensable in any comprehensive plan of public charity. Wherever and whenever one of these methods has been wholly given up, accidentally or purposely, evils have followed which only the introduction of the omitted method could wholly remove. Where to draw the line between the practical use of the two methods, for individual cases of poverty, is a matter only to be determined by wise discretion on the part of the officers who administer public relief. Indoor relief will generally be found more costly in proportion to the number relieved than family aid; and it will also, in general, apply to a much smaller number of cases, but, so far as it can be rationally and humanely used, it should be made to cover as many cases as possible. Family aid, on the other hand, should be restricted as much as possible, except for classes of the poor to whom indoor relief is (presently or prospectively) likely to be injurious. The public, generally, prefer, for reasons of sentiment, and oftentimes of good sense, the use of family aid rather than the separation of households and the sequestration of persons in great establishments, where individuality is lost in the mass, and persons are known by a numeral rather than a proper name.

THE ECONOMIC AND MORAL EFFECTS OF PUBLIC OUTDOOR RELIEF.

BY MRS. CHARLES RUSSELL LOWELL, OF NEW YORK.

I have not been able to assent to the report of the Chairman of the Committee on Indoor and Outdoor Relief, only because, as it seems to me, he does not draw the distinction which is necessary between public and private relief.

. I admit, of course, that there are persons who need relief (that is, *help*) in their own homes, and that both Pitt's argument and Mr. Sanborn's argument apply to such: "Great care should be taken, in relieving their distresses, not to throw them into the great class of vagrant and homeless poor." Such people, however, are, to my mind, not proper subjects for public relief at all; for what is public relief, and upon what grounds is it to be justified? Public relief is money paid by the bulk of the community (every community is of course composed mainly of those who are working hard to obtain a livelihood) to certain members of the community, not, however, paid voluntarily or spontaneously by those interested in the individuals receiving it, but paid by public officers from money raised by taxation. The only justification for the expenditure of public money (money raised by taxation) is that it is necessary for the public good. That certain persons need certain things is no reason for supplying them with those things from the public funds. Before this can be rightly done, it is necessary to prove that it is good for the community at large that it should be done.

It is always necessary, also, in considering the expenditure of public funds, to give up the vague notion that these funds come from an indefinitely large central source of supply, which can be drawn upon constantly without affecting any one. There is no such central source of supply. Every dollar raised by taxation comes out of the pocket of some individual, usually a poor individual, and makes him so much the poorer, and therefore the question is between the man who earned the dollar by hard work, and needs it to buy himself and his family a day's food, and the man who, however worthy and suffer-

ing, did not earn it, but wants it to be given to him to buy himself and his family a day's food. If the man who earned it wishes to divide it with the other man, it is usually a desirable thing that he should do so, and at any rate it is more or less his own business; but that the law, by the hand of a public officer, should take it from him and hand it over to the other man, seems to be an act of gross tyranny and injustice, which, if carried far enough and repeated often enough, leads to a condition of things where there is not sufficient produced for everybody, and therefore all suffer,— the men who earn the dollars as well as those who do not earn them.

It is good for the community that no one should be allowed to starve: therefore, it is a legitimate thing that the public money should be used to prevent such a possibility, and this justifies the giving of public relief in extreme cases of distress, when starvation is imminent. Where, however, shall be found the proof that starvation is imminent? Only by putting such conditions upon the giving of public relief that, presumably, persons not in danger of starvation will not consent to receive it. The less that is given, the better for every one, the giver and the receiver; and, therefore, the conditions must be hard, although never degrading. On the contrary, they must be elevating, and this is by no means incompatible with severity.

To those who object that, because the community relieves a person, that person should not therefore be reduced to pauperism by being placed in an institution, the only answer is that the receiving of relief from the community constitutes pauperism, and the refuge from pauperism is either in self-support or else in the giving of help from private sources. Because certain persons think that certain other persons need help is no doubt the best reason why they should help them, but not a good reason why they should require the community to help them.

There are undoubtedly many, many persons who do need help, and many, many more who would be glad to get it, and who think they need it; and many, many more who do not think they need it, but who still would take it if offered to them. Where is the line to be drawn? If there were a store of public property created by no individuals, the result of no personal exertion or labor,— for instance, were the United States still possessed of all the property, lands, mines, etc., which have in the past belonged to the people, and were all these now rented, and the surplus income not required for the expenses of

government divided per capita among the citizens of the United States,— is there any individual, rich or poor, who would refuse to receive his share? And, if not, why not? Simply because there would be no unpleasant conditions attached to receiving it. There would be no stigma connected with it, because every one would recognize that he had a *right* to receive it, that it was public property, and that he was in exactly the same position as every other citizen of the United States. Then, further, what would be the effect of this payment upon the character and upon the conduct of the people of the United States? Excuse the extravagance of the supposition, and say, for the sake of illustration, that the sum paid to each man and woman over twenty-one years of age was $500 a year. Would there not be quite a large proportion of the community who now earn $500 a year who would, upon being assured of this income, cease to work for a living? Some of these, so ceasing, would devote themselves to higher pursuits than earning a living,— to study, to art, to philanthropy. Some, on the contrary, would spend their substance in riotous living, and would become much less worthy, much less decent, than ever before in their lives. But all who ceased to work for a living would, undoubtedly, very soon become less fitted to earn a living, would become less energetic, less skilled in a money-making direction, less able to succeed. And what would be the effect on the children? Would they, with the assurance of $500 yearly income upon reaching their majority, probably be as energetic, as self-reliant, as fitted to earn a living, as they would have been without this assurance? Does experience prove that the children of persons who do not have to exert themselves have the same independence and the same power to support themselves as the children of those differently situated?

We have been speaking of an income paid to every member of the community, *regardless of his own exertions or character*, and we have assumed that this income came from a source of wealth, the rent of public property, not created by individuals; but could there be any such source of wealth? The rents of public property would have to be derived from the energy and industry of the men who used it; and were these and those who followed them to content themselves with the $500 coming to each of them from the public treasury, and therefore cease to produce, very soon the lands and the mines themselves would lose value, the rents would fall because of the want of industry of the people, and the community would lose a

part, at least, of its regular income, and be driven to earn its own living again by the sweat of the brow; but it would have lost many of the qualities upon which success in earning a living depends. The people would earn a worse living than they used to, and would be distinctly less "well off" than before the distribution of the public property began, until they recovered their energy and industry. Now, this is, as I have said, simply an extravagant supposition; but, considering what human nature now is, were these conditions possible, are not such the results which must follow the general acquisition of an income which should accrue to each citizen of the United States *without any exertion on his part?* At any rate, experience shows that this is exactly the effect on those who receive public relief, except that to the unfortunate diminishing of the energy and earning capacity of the recipients is also added a moral degradation, because there is a stigma attached to public relief, arising from the fact that the money received is actually the property of individuals taken from them against their will and not belonging to the public; and it is necessary to overcome a sense of shame before any one is content to become a pauper, and the loss of this sense of shame in itself constitutes a distinct moral degradation, and leads to still further deterioration of character.

If the advocates of public relief contend that there should be no stigma attached to its receipt, the answer is that, in that case, the tendency would be toward the condition where the whole people would be ready to accept an income from so-called public funds, and that the resulting loss of energy and industry would be sufficient to plunge any nation into a greater poverty than any now suffers. Public relief does not have an enervating effect upon the character of those who receive it because they are different from other human beings, but because they are human beings, and are actuated by exactly the same motives as the rest of the race. It is not because paupers are primarily more lazy than other people that they will not work for a living if they can be supported without working. If you will consider, you will find that you do not know any one (or, if you do, you regard him or her as a most extraordinary individual) who *works for a living* when it is not necessary, when the living is supplied from some source without any conditions which are dishonorable or irksome. The whole difference between a pauper and any of the rest of us who do not earn our own living is that he wants and gets *very* little, while we want and get a great deal, and that our

views of what are honorable and dishonorable conditions differ materially from his.

Of course, to be logical, I ought to go on to the position which Dr. Chalmers took, that it would be better for the community that there should be no public relief, indoor or outdoor, none in the poorhouse and none outside the poorhouse; but I am not prepared to go quite so far as this, for I do think that, besides energy and the power of work, there are other human faculties which need developing, and that the community should acknowledge an obligation to succor, and even to support, those of its members who are absolutely unable to fight the battle of life, and that there should be a sure refuge from starvation. So far as this refuge is furnished from the funds raised by taxation, however, I am persuaded, as I have said, that the only safe way to provide it is under such stringent conditions that no one shall be tempted to accept it except in an extremity, and under such conditions, also, as will as soon as possible make the recipient of help able to support himself again and do his part in supporting others. I mean that public relief should be indoor relief, inside the doors of an institution, where cure and education should be the primary objects aimed at,—*cure* of disease, moral, mental, and physical, and *education* in self-control and self-dependence. The community may well say to any of its members: "If you cannot support yourself by your own work, it is a pity. We will support you by our work; but we will not make it so pleasant for you that you will desire to continue the condition, and we will train your mind and body so that you will be able soon to undertake the care of yourself."

You see my argument is that the work of the mass of every community is an absolute necessity, in order to provide for it the means of living; that no human being will work *to provide the means of living for himself* if he can get a living in any other manner agreeable to himself (you will observe that I do not say men will not work, but that they will not work for a living); and that the community cannot afford to tempt its members who are able to work for a living to give up working for a living by offering to provide a living otherwise; and that public relief must be confined to those who cannot work for a living, and the only way to test whether they can or cannot is to make the living provided by the public always less agreeable than the living provided by the individual for himself, and the way to do this is to provide it under strict rules inside an institution.

The practice of any community in this particular is a matter of great importance, for there can be no question that there is an inverse ratio between the welfare of the mass of the people and the distribution of relief. What some one has called "the fatal ease of living without work and the terrible difficulty of living by work" are closely interrelated as cause and effect; and, if you will permit me, I will try to show by a short allegory what this relation is.

Once upon a time there lived in a valley, called the Valley of Industry, a people who were happy and industrious. All the goods of this life were supplied to them by exhaustless subterranean springs of water, which they pumped up into a great reservoir on the top of a neighboring hill, the Hill of Prosperity, from which it flowed down, each man receiving what he himself pumped up, by a small pipe which led into his own house, a moderate amount of pumping on the part of every one keeping the reservoir well filled.

Finally, a few of the inhabitants of the Valley, more keen than the rest, reflected that it was unnecessary to weary themselves with pumping, so long as every one else kept at work. The Hill of Prosperity looked very attractive; and they therefore mounted to a convenient point, and put a large pipe into the reservoir, through which they drew off copious supplies of water without further trouble. The number of those who gave up pumping and withdrew to the Hill was at first so small that the loss did not add very much to the work of the mass of the people, who still kept to their pumping, and it did not occur to them to complain; but those who could followed the others up the Hill until it was all occupied, and by this time, although those who remained in the Valley did find their pumping a good deal harder than it was when all who used the water joined in the work, yet every one had become so accustomed to some people using the reservoir water without doing any pumping that it had come to be considered all right, and still there were no complaints. Meanwhile, the people on the Hill of Prosperity having nothing to do but enjoy the prospect, some of them began to explore the neighboring country, and soon discovered another valley at the foot of the Hill, running parallel with the Valley of Industry, and called the Valley of Idleness, and in it were a few people who had wandered from the former Valley (for the two were connected at the farther end), and who were living in abject misery, with no water, and ap-

parently no means of getting any, so long as they stayed where they were. The people from the Hill of Prosperity were very much shocked at the suffering they found. "What a shame!" they cried. "The poor things have no water! We have plenty and to spare, so let us lead a pipe from the reservoir down into their Valley." No sooner said than done: the pipe was carried into the Valley of Idleness, and the people were made more comfortable. But as soon as the news was brought into the Valley of Industry, some of the pumpers who were tired or weak, and some who were only lazy, left their pumping, and hastened into the neighboring Valley, to enjoy the "free" water; but the pipe was not very large, and soon there was want and suffering again, and the people from Prosperity Hill were much disturbed, and decided to lay down another small pipe, which they did. But the result was the same, for the new supply of water attracted more people from the Valley of Industry. And so it went on, new pipe, more people, new pipe, more people, until the inhabitants of Prosperity Hill were full of distress about it, and exclaimed, "It seems a hopeless task to try to make these people happy and comfortable!" And they would have given up in despair, but a new idea occurred to them; and they said, "They do not seem to know how to take very good care of their children, and we will therefore take their children from them, and teach them to be comfortable and happy." So they built large, fine houses for the children, and they carried water in large pipes into the houses. And some of them said, "Let us put faucets, so as to teach them to turn on the water when they need it." But others said: "Oh, no! How troublesome it is to have to turn a faucet when you need water! Let them have it as we do, free." And sometimes one or other would suggest that, perhaps, after all, it was not quite right to waste so much of the water from the reservoir, and that the large pipe itself, which supplied the Hill of Prosperity, ought to have some means of checking the flow; but the answer was, "It is necessary and right that the water should be wasted; for otherwise the people in the Valley of Industry would have nothing to do, and they would starve." Usually, however, the Prosperity Hill people were too much engaged in taking care of the inhabitants of the Valley of Idleness to give much thought to those of the Valley of Industry; and their anxiety was quite justified, for they had to keep up a perpetual watchfulness, the people increasing so fast that it was necessary constantly to lay more pipe to keep them from the most abject suffering, and even this device never succeeded for very long, as I have said.

In fact, no one thought much about the Valley of Industry or its people. Those in the Valley of Idleness only thought of them long enough to reflect how silly they were to keep on pumping all the time and making their backs and arms ache, when they might have water without any exertion, by simply moving into their Valley. The children born in the Valley of Idleness did not even know there was a Valley of Industry, or any pumps, or any pumpers, or any reservoir: they thought the water grew in pipes, and ran out because it was its nature to. As for the people on the Hill of Prosperity, they were, as we have seen, rather confused in their views in this particular; and, besides thinking that their waste of the water from the reservoir was what kept the people in the Valley of Industry from starving, they used also to say sometimes: "How good it is for those people to have such nice, steady work to do! how strong it makes their back and arms! how it hardens their muscles! What a nice, independent set of people they are! and *what* a splendid quantity of pure, life-giving water they get out of our reservoir!"

Meanwhile, you can imagine, though they could not, that it was rather hard on the men in the Valley of Industry, not only to have the water they pumped up drawn off at the top to supply two other communities, but also to have their own ranks thinned and their work increased by the loss of those who were tempted into the Valley of Idleness, to live on what the Prosperity Hill people and the Valley of Idleness people liked to call euphemistically "free water," because they got it free, though actually it was not free at all; for the Valley of Industry people paid for it with their blood and muscle.

I might go on to tell you how the situation was still further complicated and made harder for them, and indeed for almost every one, when a few of them obtained control of the inexhaustible subterranean springs; but here, I think, the allegory may end for the purposes of this Conference, and it seems to me to teach a lesson which we may well heed.

I have so far considered only the effect of relief upon the character of the recipient, from the point of view of the public welfare and the injury done to the community, as a whole, by the lowering of the producing power, the energy and industry of its members. This view is the most important; but because of its very importance, because it deals with the welfare of the whole community, it is not apt to appeal so strongly to our sympathies as considerations which affect

individuals, and I shall therefore turn now to the effect on individual men and women of presenting to them the temptations of relief. You will observe that I no longer say public relief; for I do not wish here to discriminate between public and private relief, the evil effects upon the individual man or woman receiving any relief (as distinguished from the help of friends) being about equal. We have seen that it is not in human nature to refuse any gift which comes hampered by no disagreeable or dishonorable conditions; we have seen also that energy and the power of self-support must be diminished, as are all other faculties, by disuse; and, these two statements being accepted as facts, it follows that no greater injury can be done to a human being, whose whole success and happiness in life consist in his power of exerting himself and supporting himself, than to tempt him by the offer of gifts, *which will not support him*, but which will lead him to suppose that he need not support himself, and therefore will induce him to give up the use of his self-supporting faculties. Can anything more certain be devised for destroying manhood?

As it is now given, relief seems to have all the disadvantages it possibly can have, and none of the advantages. It serves to weaken the character, to excite the gambling spirit, the recklessness and extravagance which come of chance gains; but it does not give the quiet and peace, the power to live for worthier objects than mere physical support, which an assured income supplies, while it also destroys all the incentives to activity, energy, and industry which are usually supplied by the struggle to "make a living."

I am becoming more and more strongly convinced that the giving of relief in the manner which is now the custom is a cruel injury to those who receive it, both because it does produce such ruin of all the faculties which constitute what we call character, and also because it offers what to any but a heroic nature must be an overwhelming temptation.

When we consider the hardships, the struggles, the sufferings, of the mass of those who are commonly called the working people, of those who earn from day to day the support of themselves and their families, when we remember how much hard work it takes to earn one dollar, and often how hard it is even to get the hard work to do, and then think of the reckless way in which a dollar is given here, there, and everywhere, often simply for the asking, can we wonder that many succumb to the temptation to ask? The contempt for "charity" (I hate so to debase the beautiful word, but that is the

use to which it has come) which the mass of honest and hard-working people most fortunately feel is their only shield and defence against the temptation so constantly held out to them; but the temptation is potent enough to decoy its thousands within the baleful influence of "relief"-getting, and, once under the spell, the salvation of the victim seems impossible, for the rewards are too great on that side and the struggle too severe on this. Imagine a poor, sickly woman, with little children to support. By hard work, which makes her back and head ache to the limit of endurance, she may earn a dollar a day, and keep her children from starvation. By asking for relief, by begging from door to door, she can make more in one day than a week's work will bring. Except for her pride, except for her self-respect, what can weigh with her in favor of the badly paid work as against the well-paid begging? Has any human being the right, instead of going to her assistance in her extremity, so to tempt her to degradation? Or imagine the man who by a month's work can earn fifty or sixty dollars. He has a sick wife. He has three or four little children. He knows there is plenty of money in the hands of *benevolent* persons. He writes a letter, setting forth his straits. He receives $25 in return. Can that man ever again be free from the temptation to gain another $25 by the writing of another letter, instead of spending twelve weary days in getting it? You see, these people are not in comfortable circumstances. They cannot have what they want, often not what they need, even by making all the exertion of which they are capable. Then, if to them comes the temptation to get it all without any exertion, is it not, as I have said, *heroic*, if they resist? and is it possible that any one with a heart and a conscience and an imagination can be willing to stand as the tempter where the temptation is so dire and the results of giving way mean moral ruin?

It seems unnecessary to say that, if it were a question of giving an income sufficient to live decently upon to certain persons for life, the moral effect would not be so bad, would often not be bad at all; but the trouble here is as to the choice of the favored persons and the danger of indefinitely enlarging the number of pensioners until the resources for their support and for the support of the community as a whole were brought so low as to cause extended and general suffering, and therefore the only way for the *public* to supply any such comfortable living is to supply it under conditions which so far detract from or at least counterbalance its comfort as to

make the number of persons ready to accept it self-limited. As to what may and ought to be done in this direction by those persons who, having a large share of the goods of this world, are called upon to help those who have less, I can only say that I think there are many poor, feeble, suffering women, now struggling for their daily bread, whom it would be a very desirable thing to supply with an income sufficient to keep them in comfort to the end of their lives, and that the injury to their characters would be no more and no other than the injury of resting in comfort to the characters of the many strong and happy women who now live on incomes which they do not earn.

Finally, the real condemnation of relief-giving is that it is material, that it seeks material ends by material means, and therefore must fail, in the nature of things, even to attain its own ends. For man is a spiritual being, and, if he is to be helped, it must be by spiritual means. As Mazzini has said: "The human soul, not the body, should be the starting-point of all our labors, since the body without the soul is only a carcass; while the soul, wherever it is found free and holy, is sure to mould for itself such a body as its wants and vocation require."

Those who claim that relief must be given, even though it does destroy the character, because without it they fear that there may be physical suffering, besides forgetting the fact that it makes more suffering than it cures, forget also the awful question: —

"What shall it profit a man if he gain the whole world and lose his own soul? Or what shall a man give in exchange for his soul?"

THE RECIPIENTS OF OUTDOOR RELIEF.

BY ISAAC P. WRIGHT, ST. PAUL, MINN.

While I have been engaged in this particular work for more than thirty years, and have given it much careful thought, yet I find it one of the most difficult tasks to determine what is the best method to adopt in extending relief to the poor and destitute. It is a grave question to decide, at times, whether to give or not to give. My long experience convinces me that we can do as much by kindly advice and encouragement to those who apply for assistance as by giving material aid. I am fully assured that we in the city of St. Paul, by adopting the above system, have decreased pauperism, and have been the means of raising many from dependence to self-support. The plan adopted by our board is not to give until after a careful investigation, and then, in many instances, only temporary aid, stating that this temporary relief is only given to keep the recipients from suffering until they can get employment, and that on account of their children they ought not to be enrolled on our books as paupers. We give them at the same time the best and most kindly advice.

Indoor and outdoor relief may be more accurately defined to be the relief afforded to those who are provided with board and lodging inside of a public or charitable institution, and the relief afforded to that class having a shelter of their own, and who need help only in the direction of family supplies. These two classes differ materially; yet the cause of the dependence of each is the same,— poverty. We cannot hope to rid ourselves of the dependent class. All the societies and associations now or hereafter to be organized will not rid the world of poverty; but pinching, biting hunger may be relieved, and the cold winds as they whistle over the uncovered heads of the helpless may be tempered in their severity by systematic organized effort.

Those who are furnished with indoor relief are generally the old and infirm, who have neither friends nor homes, and whose infirmities are such as to unfit them for gaining a livelihood. They must be taken in and cared for, or permitted to beg at large over our cities. The latter course would not only demoralize them, but also the communities in which they move. It is incumbent upon us to care for those upon whom misfortune has fallen in their old age, and also

those rendered incapable of earning their bread by accidents which they could not control. Sometimes, after careful nursing, some of the latter recover sufficiently to enable them, by honest industry, to earn enough to meet their daily wants. No one should be provided with indoor relief who has physical strength, and is able by industry and sobriety to earn even a scanty subsistence.

In every community the second class is more numerous. Almost every family or person to be assisted has a history of its or his own; and to enumerate these causes would be simply to recall all the crimes against the moral law. Take, for example, the loose ideas entertained by many of the sanctity of the marriage relation. In many instances it is entered into as a matter of convenience, to be terminated at the pleasure of either party and on the shortest notice. A man with a wife and a number of small children, finding it impossible to support them by his labor, or who forms an unholy attachment for another, abandons his wife and children, knowing that kind and well-disposed people will not allow them to suffer for the necessaries of life. These are some who receive outside relief. They cannot be turned away; for, unless provided for, the abandoned wife in many cases will become an outcast, and the girls will enter upon a life of shame as soon as they become old enough, while the boys will go on in wickedness until the doors of some prison close upon them. A little timely assistance, a little friendly advice, may save the entire family, and the children may grow up to be good and useful citizens.

Many require outside assistance on account of the dissipated habits of the husband and father. It seems almost impossible for such men to pass a saloon without entering, and there they often remain until their day's wages are consumed. Then they return to their hungry wives and children, who have waited anxiously for them to return with at least enough money to buy bread. But, alas! the saloon-keeper has their money, and their children must do without the necessaries of life. These innocent, unoffending ones should not suffer for the faults of those who should care for and protect them, and hence they become legitimate subjects for outdoor relief.

Another cause of destitution is the great desire to amass fortunes among all classes of people. To get something for nothing is the thought uppermost in the minds of many people. In many cases the daily wages are used to purchase tickets in that infamous institution known as the Louisiana State Lottery, which has done so much to demoralize the people and to bring destitution and want to the doors

of laboring men and women. A man who labors for one dollar a day will with it buy a ticket, hoping to draw a large prize. He deprives his wife and children of his legitimate earnings, and stands no chance whatever of getting his money back. He might just as well burn the money, and thus save the postage he would have to pay to transmit it to that sink-hole of iniquity. If there were only one person in a community guilty of this folly, this reference would be out of place. But few persons comprehend the magnitude of this great destroyer of public morals and the consumer of the bread of hungry children. There are probably many families in every town who must receive outside assistance on account of this festering sore upon our whole country, which requires heroic surgery on the part of Congress to save many of our people from wreck and ruin.

Of course there are many worthy cases requiring assistance whose destitution does not arise from any of these causes. Those who cannot get work, though willing to do anything, must be aided until they can get something to do, when they will become self-sustaining. No case should receive relief until fully and fairly investigated by competent authority. This will insure relief to the meritorious and defeat the attempt of the unworthy to participate in private or official bounty.

OUTDOOR RELIEF IN GREECE AND ITALY.

A LETTER TO THE CONFERENCE.

Having occasion to spend the whole month of March and a part of April in Greece, and passing from there to Sicily and Southern Italy, I have made some observations concerning indoor and outdoor relief in those two kingdoms — containing in all some 33,000,000 people — which may interest the National Conference of Charities. I cannot claim to have studied the subject very thoroughly; but I have visited several establishments for charitable purposes, both in Greece and Italy, and have inquired of those who seemed best able to give information concerning the matter.

Be it observed in the outset that what is known in northern latitudes as public charity is made necessary in a great degree by the severe climate, and therefore ought not to be expected to such an extent in countries like Italy and Greece, which have mild winters.

The severity of the season interferes but little with the labor of man, so that work may be as abundant in winter as in summer, which is never the case in colder climates, where the necessity for fuel and warm clothing is one of the chief reasons why public and private charity are so costly in the Northern States of America. As a mere conjecture, I should say that this difference of climate alone would reduce the *necessary* cost of charity in Italy and Greece to little more than half what it must be in England and America.

After making this allowance, however, one is surprised to find that in Greece, with a population of more than 2,000,000, about as many as Massachusetts contains, there is, in fact, no *public* charity at all, or so little as to be practically of no account. By this I mean that neither the national nor the local authorities in Greece spend any appreciable sum of money annually for the relief of the poor, considered merely as *paupers*. *All* that is done in this way comes from endowments by wealthy persons, or subscriptions yearly made by the benevolent, the national government occasionally giving a piece of land or remitting a tax for the benefit of these private charities, but granting no subsidy, and never appropriating a yearly sum for regular expenses of support and relief, as we do in Massachusetts.

In Greece the odds and ends of money thus contributed by the public authorities cannot well exceed $1,000,000 a year.

In Massachusetts, with about the same population, it exceeds $2,250,000. Last winter, in consequence of the epidemic influenza, which caused many deaths and much suffering of others, it was proposed in the city government to vote 10,000 drachms—less than $1,900 — in aid of the poor thus afflicted; but the outlay seemed unreasonable, and was voted down.

What will seem equally strange to Americans, there is a strong opposition in Greece, on the part of the endowed and private charities, to any action by the public authorities in the direction of voting money or assuming the oversight of indoor and outdoor relief. It seems to be feared that political interference with the private charities would be the result of State action, and that the care of the poor would become a part of the political machinery and be less wisely managed than now.

In Italy, on the contrary, where there has been till now hardly more expenditure *by the authorities* in behalf of the poor than in Greece,— in Italy, a bill is now before Parliament establishing the national authority over all those benevolent endowments which have

been growing up there for fifteen hundred years, and now constitute the chief source of supply for the poor in their distress. The number of these endowments is enormous, and their revenues very extensive, amounting in Rome alone to more than $1,000,000 a year.

Nobody seems to know how many there are in all Italy; nor has an exact report been made, so far as I can learn, of their annual expenditures, the number of their beneficiaries, or the results of their activity. Many of them devoted originally to special uses have seen those uses become obsolete; and, therefore, their funds have either been accumulating without use or have been diverted to other uses. The common statement made by those who favor the bill now on its passage through the Senate is that the clergy (by whom these funds are mainly, though not wholly, administered) have neglected and abused their trust in many cases, so that these great endowments do not accomplish half what they might do if systematized and properly managed. Some part of the accusation must be true; for such would be the result anywhere of the unsystematic methods now in use. In reporting this bill to the Senate last Christmas, the Prime Minister, Crispi, spoke of "the disorder that has prevailed in the management of the charities, and the frequent abuses which the existing law can neither prevent nor remedy; the colossal revenues now expended without any real practical benefit to the suffering poor; and the need of doing what is possible for greater efficiency than in the past in bringing relief and advantage to distressed humanity."

These statements have not been contradicted in the debates of April, and the bill passed by a two-thirds vote in spite of a considerable clerical opposition. It will not put the private charities in the hands of the government, but will regulate them.

Probably much of their revenue is now wisely and frugally expended; but it is clear that in times past (and to some extent now) pauperism and mendicancy are directly encouraged and increased by these abundant foundations for their relief. The pauperism of Italy, and especially the street beggary, are much less conspicuous than they were before 1870, when the whole kingdom became united, with Rome for its capital; and the condition of the lower class of people is greatly improved. Particularly is this the case in Southern Italy and Sicily, where I have spent most of the time since reaching this kingdom.

This improvement does not seem to have been in consequence of

any great change in the mode of public or private relief,—for none such has yet accrued,—but because of the increased self-respect which national and local freedom gave, and the stimulus that education and industry have received since the abominable tyranny that disgraced Southern Italy has been ended.

The constitutional government of Victor Emanuel and his son, replacing an arbitrary, vindictive, and ignorant despotism in more than half of Italy, has produced economic results worthy of notice everywhere, and especially noteworthy now, when the commercial and industrial state of the kingdom is exceptionally bad.

Notwithstanding the "hard times" and the discontent among the laborers, which is so great in some cities as to threaten riots, the visible mendicancy of Southern Italy is hardly a tenth part so much as it was described by travellers who were here in the thirty years from 1835 to 1865. In a few small towns of Sicily — Taormina and Girgenti, for example — there are many beggars, and the plump, ragged boys and girls will still tell you they are "dying of hunger"; but these are exceptions. In Palermo I hardly saw more street beggars than in Boston; and, when I inquired for the poorhouse of that great city, I was conducted to the *Albergo dei Poveri* for women and girls, outside the city wall, and not far from the old palace of the king, where some 700 women and children are living, working, and receiving education in a manner which quite eclipses any American poorhouse I ever saw. Their food is abundant and varied, their dress and lodging good, their industries numerous, and their education carried so far that I sat for fifteen minutes and heard a Professor from the University lecture to a class of 25 girls (who were taking notes) on Manzoni's famous romance and Italian literature in general. Yet this seemed to be the general almshouse of Palermo for women and children, except that invalids and the insane were maintained elsewhere. It is wholly supported by endowments and by private gifts, is managed by Sisters of Charity, and inspected, but neither governed nor aided, by the city authorities of Palermo.

Such a method of "indoor relief" as this, or as that which I saw in Athens, in March,—where 400 poor women and girls are furnished with work in spinning, weaving, sewing, knitting, etc., and where the little girls are taught to read, write, and sew,—cannot be said to conform to the old "workhouse test" of England. The Greek *Ergasterion*, as it is called, is a manual labor factory and school, supported almost wholly by the sale of its products, the deficit being supplied,

not by the government, but by private charity. The same is true of the Insane Asylum of Athens,—the only one in continental Greece,—of the two Orphan Asylums, and of the general almshouse there. Outdoor relief does not seem to exist in Greece, except in the occasional form of beggary; and the beggars are very seldom Greeks. I have not seen a community anywhere with so much real poverty and so little pauperism as in Greece. The contrast with some parts of Italy is very striking, inasmuch as the two countries lie in the same latitude and have industries quite similar. Outdoor relief, furnished by private charity and by the Church, is very abundant in Italy, where the poor are still indiscriminately fed in soup-houses and other resorts of unthinking benevolence.

In reflecting on the contrast between Greece and Italy, I could not help noticing the share which the two churches of the two countries have had in producing this difference. The Greek Church is poor. Its clergy have small revenues, and often labor with their hands for their own support. They do not, therefore, bestow much in charity; nor do they encourage mendicancy, either in the religious or the secular classes. In Italy, on the contrary, the Latin Church is rich with the accumulated endowments of 1,500 years; its clergy command enormous revenues and live in princely fashion; while its mendicant orders continually exhibit to the people the spectacle of able-bodied men begging in the name of religion and living on alms. Two effects seem to me to follow from this state of things. In the first place, the funds of the Church are distributed, without sufficient inquiry, among the deserving and the undeserving poor; and thus pauperism has long been encouraged. In the second place, the populace, seeing mendicancy taught and practised as a religious duty, have had no shame about becoming beggars themselves; and the result for centuries was a nation of shameless street beggars. In the great cities of Italy and Sicily, where commercial ideas and the industrial and educational progress of mankind have displaced old superstition, this beggary has been much diminished; but in small and stagnant communities it is still prevalent. In Greece, as I have said, beggary does not exist, except as it has been introduced by Italians, Syrians, Persians, and other foreigners. As the doctrine of these two great churches is much the same, I could not help being struck with the opposite results which the different practice of this Christian doctrine seems to have occasioned.

As bearing upon the perpetual dispute about the comparative

merits of indoor and outdoor relief, the example of these two countries appears also contradictory. In Greece there is no public indoor relief,— no "workhouse test" of any sort,— and yet there is no outdoor relief, or next to none. In Italy also there is no public indoor relief; and great are the abuses of outdoor relief, though far less than formerly. But the removal of these abuses has not been consequent upon any rigid system of indoor relief; for none such has prevailed anywhere that I can hear of. I leave the reconciliation of these contradictions to the better judgment of the Conference, and remain, as ever, its devoted member and servant.

F. B. SANBORN.

ROME, May 1, 1890.

Since writing the preceding, a speech has been made (May 2) by the Premier, Crispi, giving a summary of the *Opere Pie*, or Charities, educational and eleemosynary, of all Italy, as they now exist, which I ought to quote as an essential part of my communication. Signor Crispi said: "There are 21,818 *Opere* of charity, which, all together, control a property of 2,000,000,000 francs ($400,000,000). The yearly income of this property is 90,000,000 francs ($18,000,000), and might be 100,000,000 ($20,000,000) if there was better management. The expenses (apart from benevolence) mount up to fifteen million francs for taxes, eight million for charges on the property, and seventeen million for cost of administration." In all, therefore, forty million francs ($8,000,000) out of ninety, leaving only fifty million francs for charity ($10,000,000). "Of the whole 21,818 institutions, less than 7,000 have property enough for their needs. The yearly income of 10,000 institutions is less than 500 francs each ($100); and not more than 4,200 have an income above 500 francs, and not exceeding 1,500 (between $100 and $300 a year). The institutions strictly eleemosynary are 8,215 in number, with a property of 180 million francs, and an income of ten million ($36,000,000 and $2,000,000). Now, the concentration of these institutions has several objects in view. To bring together all those which have a similar scope under one management is to give unity to their beneficence and economy in their expenses. And we concentrate those which are now so small as to be useless by themselves, particularly the charities of the little towns. The fruit of this reform will be economy in management, activity and efficiency in supervision and

control. It will check professional mendicancy, while checking other abuses. Senator Alfieri reminds us of America. Let me remind him that there is an enormous difference between Europe and America. The United States have not the burden of the Middle Ages on their back. They have no need to tear down before they build up. All they have to do is to build. The day will come when we can compare ourselves with America; but there is much to be done before that. Savigny says that charity is sometimes hurtful. So it is, when it does not educate, when it nourishes idleness, when the government permits it to continue under antiquated forms." [Applause.]

I do not know precisely the limits of what Crispi here calls "eleemosynary charities," but I give his figures and his words. They show what the Italian government has undertaken; and the difficulties and benefits thence accruing do not appear to me overrated by this acute statesman. Possibly, he lacked some of the qualities which Pope Urban VIII., according to the anecdote, said that his kinsmen, the Barberini, lacked. He used to complain, says Goethe, that he had four nephews who were good for nothing: Cardinal Francis was a saint, but could work no miracles; Cardinal Anthony was a monk, but had no patience; Cardinal Antony, Jr., was an orator, but could not make a speech; while the fourth was a general, but did not know when to fight. Signor Crispi ought not to be asked to work miracles; but he can certainly make a good speech, and he is rather too fond of drawing the sword. Perhaps he lacks the cloistered virtue of patience, which he will certainly need long before he sees the charities of Italy reduced to a frugal and orderly system. But his aim is good; and Americans ought to wish him success.

F. B. S.

Rome, May 3, 1890.

ALMSHOUSE ABUSES AND REFORMS.

BY C. W. CHANCELLOR, M.D.,

SECRETARY OF THE MARYLAND STATE BOARD OF HEALTH.

I have been induced to prepare a paper on the above subject, both from a desire to benefit the unfortunate poor and because what I have to say will, through the channel of this Conference, most assuredly reach those who take the greatest interest in the subject.

In an official report which I had the honor to make a few years ago to his Excellency, Governor John Lee Carroll, on "The Public Charities of Maryland," the following language occurs: —

"It is painful to report the shocking condition in which many of the public institutions (notably the almshouses) were found, and it is difficult to conceive that anything worse ever existed in a civilized country. It needs not the battle-strife with its sequences of woe, nor the pestilence with its horrors, to afford a field of labor for the truly philanthropic. It is here in our midst, at our very doors; and the field is widest where we most boast of refinement, progress, and reform."

Civilization in its progress has mitigated the rigors of war and the horrors of pestilence, but it has done little toward ameliorating the condition of the poor in our almshouses. Here is a vast field for human sympathy and human charity; yet there are comparatively few, even of our most charitably disposed people, who have ever been inside of an almshouse or know anything about the manner in which the inmates are treated, except that they are removed from the view of the world.

Is it not singular, is it not melancholy, that, while the progress of time produces changes in all other things, the destiny of the almshouse pauper remains still the same,— that here we find him, at the end of so many years, like Ixion on his wheel of torture, never advancing, always suffering, his whole existence a monotonous round of agony, without one moment of consolation or repose?

Should I attempt to describe an almshouse as I have seen it, I would picture it as a gloomy old house, with dirty surroundings, scant of furniture, no carpets, no pictures, no flowers, no sign of comfort within or without, nothing to please the eye or cheer the heart of the forlorn inmates, against whom the doors of the world are, as it were, bolted by misfortune, *not by crime.* Old age, physical infirmity, grinding poverty, are their relentless gaolers.

Should I attempt to instruct the public concerning the real condition of this unfortunate class of paupers, of whom the opulent of this country know as little, or indeed less, than they do of the poor of Naples or Madrid, I should say that they are human beings bent down under adversity, smitten with disease, tame, spiritless, and unhappy, who too often end their days attended only by an untrained, unskilful, and, possibly, unconscientious and unsympathetic pauper nurse. This picture does not of course apply to the best managed

of our modern almshouses; but I think we should be living in a fools' paradise if we imagined that abuses are all done away with, even in the best of them.

Let us give a sketch of one inmate of an almshouse, which will serve as a type of the general class. A female child is born in a poor man's family; and there is joy, for nature is glad at such a time, however melancholy the future prospect. The infant survives bad nursing, coarse fare, and perhaps cruel usage. She is taught by premature toil and hardship the habit of sacrificing self-will and self-indulgence to the wants and caprices of others. Yet she is happy because the sun shines, the showers fall, the birds sing for her. Sleep is sweet, and play is pleasant, and food delicious; for she has not yet found out the secret of being discontented with what she has and coveting what she has not. She now becomes the household drudge of all the family. She cooks and scours, and washes and works, when she ought to be improving her mind at school or exhilarating her spirits and invigorating her limbs in healthful sports with companions of her own age. Presently, she is put out to service; and now she experiences how much truth there is in that proverbial saying among persons of her class, "There is no end of woman's work." Her couch may be straw or eider-down for aught she knows or cares, for her slumbers are sound and her dreams are golden. Love in due season awakens in her breast all the hopes and the fears, the jealousies, anxieties, and entrancements, that agitate more refined and susceptible bosoms. In fine, she has a "lover," with whom the wooing interludes, amid her weary service, make toil delightful, if not for its own sake, yet for his; and she feels as if there were something in life worth living for the poorest of its possessors.

Preliminaries are arranged: they are married, she has a home of her own, such as it is, and is heedless of the future. Children multiply, and so do troubles; her husband is unfortunate or improvident; he dies or becomes debauched in morals, and leaves her, in middle age, with a numerous and helpless offspring. These grow up, subsisting miserably upon a mere pittance, until her infirmities increase, and she is forced to take refuge in an almshouse, while her immediate successors are transmigrating through the same stages of poverty and trial to the same consummation of wretchedness. These general outlines, with little comparative variation, might be filled up with the features of each particular case in "the short and simple annals" of thousands of poor women breathing at this day the air of heaven in the gloomy shadow of an almshouse.

Independent of casual disadvantages, these sufferers in the lowest state have a peculiar claim, on account of their sex, on the veneration and gratitude of both sexes,— a claim on their own springing from the purest sympathies of a sister nature: a claim on ours founded on the strongest obligation that can bind one being to another,— the obligation of birth. When the Almighty had taken Eve from the side of the man whom he had created, and brought her unto him, Adam said, "This is now bone of my bone and flesh of my flesh." The debt which the first woman thus owed to the first man, her daughters have been repaying through all generations. Every son of Adam has been born of a woman, from the fountain of whose blood his veins were first filled, and from the pulsation of whose heart vital motion was first communicated to his own.

Besides those who are brought to the almshouse on account of illness or grievous misfortune, there are others who might well claim our sympathy. Old age has its many trials, even when spent in a comfortable home, with every surrounding to make life comfortable; but old age spent in a badly managed almshouse is cheerless beyond description. Day follows day without any interest, and occupation is conspicuous only from its absence. The monotony of such a life must be something terrible, if not quite intolerable. The story of old Betsy Higden fighting off the wolf from her door, inch by inch, and finally running away to die in the fields in her great horror of the almshouse, is no myth of Dickens's fancy. She is a type of many.

But it is not only the very poor who need our thoughts and our help. There are others about us who are battling day by day with the life they live,— some striving for a living for themselves and those who are dependent upon them; some with bitterness in their hearts, and perhaps some physical infirmity that bears them down; some trying to hide a genteel poverty; some with high aspirations and working brains, yet lacking but a little to help them climb the ladder of life; some in despondency, who want cheering, and must be, as it were, "taken out of themselves," and "put upon their feet." There are no two beings alike, either in person or thought, nor exactly, perhaps, in what is foolishly called "station." What is really wanted is not only charity toward the hopelessly poor, but a wider, a larger, a grander, a better, a truer, a more Christian charity toward those who are willing — nay, more, who are striving — to help themselves. "When that which is perfect is come, that which is in part shall be done away," and we shall then abide in the faith of that charity which

"beareth all things, believeth all things, hopeth all things, endureth all things."

Many persons are ready and willing to bestow aid and sympathy on hospital patients. Hospitals are generally felt to be an untold blessing to suffering humanity; but few, comparatively, are in the least aware of the misery which lurks behind the walls of an almshouse. In these institutions may be found cases even more distressing than those which are tenderly nursed by skilled hands in hospitals. Patients who are hopelessly ill, but who are little likely to be speedily released from their pain by the hand of death, often drift into almshouses; for they must needs make way in the hospitals for those whose complaints are not chronic, but of a more curable nature.

How many charitably disposed persons, with ready sympathy for the sick in hospitals, have never seen the inside of an almshouse! Nor have they any special desire to do so, as they regard those whose fate has brought them to the "poorhouse" as men and women who, either from thriftlessness, idleness, drunkenness, or a never-do-well existence, are properly disposed of in such places, where they can be out of other people's way. If those who hold such opinion would summon up courage to find their way into these uninviting abodes, and make acquaintance with the pauper inmates, they would soon come to think more kindly of them. The "never-do-well" class is of course represented in every almshouse; but we find there also another class, who bear suffering with patience, even with cheerfulness, who show gratitude for the smallest favors, who lead exemplary lives amid the coarsest surroundings, and who are worthy objects of tender care.

The necessity for almshouse reform was forcibly portrayed in the report to which I have already referred, but the subject did not occupy the minds of either the authorities or the people except as "a nine days' wonder" how such abuses could exist in a civilized community. How terribly helpless are the inmates of such places, when they are completely at the mercy of an ignorant and possibly cruel keeper, beneath whose unworthy sway they are made to tremble, and there is no one to whom they can confide their grievances!

> "Man's inhumanity to man
> Makes countless thousands mourn."

If there were lady visitors to these institutions, whose visits were sanctioned and encouraged by the trustees or guardians of the poor

(and let us be very suspicious of any management that would not encourage such visits), a happy link would be established with the outer world and those who are cut off from it. Such visitations would not only tend to modify existing abuses, but would make the practice of them very difficult and altogether odious. By no means let us imagine that in every almshouse these abuses exist; but, even in the best of them, the visits of benevolent and charitable persons could do no harm. Great good would also come from the selection of ladies to occupy the post of guardians or trustees rather than men who are too busy to give the necessary attention to the duties of the position or who only think to use it for political purposes.

I am aware that reformations cannot be hastily taken up and suddenly executed. We are told by Demosthenes that the proposer of any new law among the Locrians *wore a rope about his neck.* If the law failed of adoption, his life was an instant sacrifice to the sanctity of the established custom. Less violent yet powerful checks are imposed in our day, whenever an attempt is made to place almshouses under better management. To prepare the way for such a change, the first step to be taken is to create in the public mind a demand for the proposed reformation. The inclinations of the people must be gradually led toward it; they are to be made fully sensible of the inefficiency of the present system, of the hardships and oppressions which grow out of it, and of the necessity for adopting a more advantageous one. Especially should public opinion be prejudiced against the barbarous custom of raising children in almshouses.

It is melancholy to think of these little ones growing up in such haunts, only to become pests to society. The custom no doubt originated, in the first instance, from urgent considerations and a necessity of providing some place for these abandoned little creatures. At the present day, however, there is no man who can contemplate without dismay the probable consequences of such a practice. Dickens makes the old grandmother of Brentford say: "Throw a child under a cart-horse's feet and a loaded wagon sooner than take him to an almshouse. Better swoon to death in a hole than fall into the hands of those 'Cruel Jakes' we read of, that dodge and drive, and worry and weary, and scorn and shame the decent poor."

In some almshouses sex-mixing is as common among the inmates as with the lowest animals; and, consequently, there is a great increase of innocent paupers from this cause. The importance of rescuing these desolate little creatures from the moral and physical

degradation which surrounds them, and placing them in a position where, besides being properly fed and clothed, their minds will be constantly imbued with habits of cleanliness and order, morality and industry, self-respect and a worthy ambition, cannot be overestimated. Apart from the dictates of philanthropy and Christianity, the future of these children is important from a political standpoint. If they are permitted to grow up in ignorance, with every faculty blunted and tarnished as soon as developed, society may hereafter be burthened with a new woe. According to our free institutions, they will some day have the same amount of control over the destinies of the State as their more enlightened and intelligent fellow-citizen; and, that being the case, what less can we expect from such a school of vicious habits and morbid impulses than the creation of a desire to fill the land with tumult and bloodshed? Thus we see that this is a question claiming the earnest attention of both the philanthropist and the statesman; and whatever blame attaches to it on the ground of inhumanity must attach to the State at large, and not to any individual or body of individuals. If our law-makers have thought proper to interfere and protect brute animals from wanton ill-usage, there can surely be no question as to the propriety of protecting innocent children from worse than ill-usage,—the cruelty of a life begun and ended in an almshouse.

Ought not modern consciences, which have become so tender toward "brute creation," to be awakened toward the unnecessary tortures to which these innocents are reduced by confinement in a cheerless almshouse? Born and reared often in an ambient of filth and immorality, what possible hope is there that their scrofulous and rickety bodies can ever, under such circumstances, throw off hereditary and acquired poisons, and serve as a foundation for healthy minds and morals? It is the duty of society to change their physical, mental, and moral surroundings, so as to renovate, as it were, their physical, mental, and moral capacities, and thereby make them capable of becoming good and useful citizens.

It is an undeniable fact that the employment given to the inmates of almshouses who are abundantly able to work is very slight, while there is an entire lack of occupation for those who are considered too old or no longer able to work. For the former class, almshouses should be made "workhouses," in the strictest sense of the word. There are many who go into an almshouse expecting to be comfortably maintained in able-bodied idleness. For this class, suitable work

should be provided, and a watchful eye kept over them, in order that no advantage be taken of the "relief" intended for the poor and helpless; and when they find that they have to work, not only to support themselves, but to support the aged and infirm, they will soon leave the almshouse. For the latter or enfeebled class, work should be provided with a very different object. With no work, no books, no amusements, no outside interests, life is to them an almost unsupportable burden. What wonder that they look dejected and downcast? What wonder that their intelligence deteriorates, and they become a sort of human vegetable? Looking at it from one point of view, it is a mercy that deterioration of mind does take place; for were it otherwise, and they could not settle down into a state of dull stagnation, the fear would be that madness would more frequently ensue or that suicide would become more common. The poor inmate who has no employment, no pleasant distractions, will sit and mope away the time, and think only of his or her own wretched existence, and the utter uselessness of it.

In England, a scheme has been introduced to remedy the great evil of idleness in almshouses, by providing light and suitable employment for the aged and infirm. It is the work of a woman, and as such deserves the attention of women. To Lady Brabazon, now the Countess of Meath, must be credited the happy idea of founding the work. Having obtained the sanction of the board of guardians of the Kensington almshouse to make the experiment, she contributed £30 for the purchase of a stock of materials, in order to keep the old people employed. A committee of ladies was formed to carry out the scheme. These kind helpers went from room to room in search of unoccupied men and women whom the matron could not possibly employ on account of their infirmities, but who nevertheless were glad to be given some light work. The task of instructing such a band of cripples was no light one. Some had but one arm, some were blind, the limbs of others were completely distorted by rheumatism; but patience and perseverance on the part of both teachers and pupils soon triumphed. Weekly lessons were given by the ladies; and so successful were their efforts that at the end of a few months a quantity of useful articles had been neatly made, and, moreover, the old people, who had been morose and sullen, became bright and cheerful under the influence of "something to do." Their minds were interested, they had an object in view, and they worked with a cheerful diligence, which materially added to their mental and phys-

ical comfort. The work, of course, was voluntary; but nearly all preferred to do something, and the knowledge of "something attempted, something done," was sufficient reward for their industry.

Semi-annually there are public sales of the articles manufactured. One of these sales is described by Lady Meath as follows: "It was a grand day and one long to be remembered by the poor simple inmates, for on it they hobbled or were carried down to the large room where all the bright woollen garments and other things which they had manufactured were displayed. They thought it a beautiful sight, and greatly enjoyed the 'tea and buns' which were served to them by their kind-hearted teachers, who were justly proud of their industrious pupils and their capital work, all of which found ready buyers. Not only a sum necessary for the purchase of fresh materials was realized from the sale, but sufficient remained over to provide small gifts to all who had been employed."

In this way the scheme has been made self-supporting, and the effort to ameliorate the lot of the pauper has won golden opinions, not only from the workers themselves, who heartily enjoy the employment, but from a wide circle of friends and supporters. The seed thus sown has taken strong root; and the result has been so marvellously striking and successful that the scheme is not only a *fait accompli* in Kensington, but it has also been established at Tonbridge Union, Pembury, and may fairly be expected to spread to other parts of the country.

There is no reason why this benevolent work may not be introduced into most of our almshouses if workers come forward and take the initiative. Ladies, generally, are blest with active brains, clever fingers, and kindly hearts; and they can always be counted upon to aid in any good work. The method of introducing the scheme into our almshouses may be briefly stated as follows:—

1. Several counties or townships or districts should combine in a "Union Almshouse" for the reception of the poor of those counties.

2. The sanction of the board of guardians or trustees connected with any given institution into which it is desired to introduce the scheme should be obtained, which can be done by enlisting the sympathy of some individual guardian or trustee who will bring the matter before the board with which he is connected.

3. The required permission having been obtained, a band of ladies must be gathered together to form a committee, who will organize by electing proper officers, and be ready to give weekly instruction

to the paupers in knitting, netting, fretwork, carving or any other light employment.

4. Application must be made to the proper authorities or to private individuals for a small sum of money, say $100 or $200, for the purchase of materials with which to begin the work.

5. Secure the aid and influence of the press, of the church and other charitable organizations, and of the public, in behalf of the scheme and the work of bettering the condition of the poor generally.

Of course, the proposed scheme is not intended to interfere with the ordinary routine of work in an almshouse, there being always a number of younger workers who execute useful work on the farm or about the premises, apart from those who are too old or too infirm to perform that work which is necessary for the ordinary maintenance of the premises.

No one can contemplate the work of Lady Meath without feeling thankful that there are such thoughtful, generous minds,— thoughtful for the well-being and happiness of others; thoughtful, though themselves in the lap of wealth and luxury, of the lowly, the suffering, and the very poor. All honor to the noble woman whose goodness of heart prompted and whose strength of will made successful a scheme for the employment, or rather the finding of occupation, for the infirm and unfortunate inmates of the almshouses of England. Let the ladies of our land — kinder, better, never lived — follow the example which has been set, and make it their pleasure to help on the good work in this country. When willing hearts, willing hands, and willing minds have united in this undertaking, there is but one foregone conclusion; and that is — success.

VI.

Training Schools for Nurses.

TRAINED NURSES AMONG THE SICK POOR IN NEW YORK.

BY MRS. ANDREW HEERMANCE SMITH, NEW YORK.

The subject of Training Schools for Nurses in general is too well understood to need explanation. It is the province of this paper to treat of the work of these nurses among the sick poor of New York.

Before leaving the general topic for the special one, however, it may be well to state a fact which must be of interest to those who are often asked, "How can a woman earn her living?"

Four years ago a new training school for nurses was projected in New York. There were those who thought the profession overcrowded. Careful inquiry was made of the superintendents of our leading schools, and the fact elicited that the demand for trained nurses far exceeded the supply. The public is learning the value of skilled labor, and will be satisfied with nothing less.

The school was founded; and this winter — an exceptional one, it is true — several hundred applications for nurses were received beyond the number available for private work.

We are familiar with the trained nurse in our homes, and gratefully recognize her untiring, unselfish devotion amid much that is wearing to mind and body; but, when we follow the missionary nurse from one noisome tenement to another in the foulest quarters of our great city, gratitude and admiration change to reverence. But reverence comes from knowledge; and we must learn something of the system, in order to understand the work.

While several churches and societies employ nurses to visit the poor, I have selected for our study the method of work pursued by the New York City Mission and Tract Society, because it is the oldest worker in this field; and ten years of experience have done much to perfect the system.

This society is undenominational, and has its headquarters in the Bible House. It employs from six to eight graduate nurses. They receive at first $40 a month, the second year $45; and after five or more years of faithful service the salary is raised to $50. The nurses live at the Home for Christian Workers connected with this society, where they pay for board and washing. In our city, where the expense of living is so great, the salary received by these women only suffices to pay for actual necessities, with no balance for the savings-bank. In estimating the value of this fact, it must be remembered that these nurses could command easily from sixteen to twenty-five dollars a week in private families.

The organization of charity is pleasantly illustrated by the successive steps we shall follow in tracing the work of this society.

First, a message from one of the missionaries tells the need of woman's help. In response, a nurse is sent immediately. She wears no uniform, only simple clothing, of a kind which can be easily disinfected. In her little bag go a few necessaries,— old linen, oil-silk, and some simple remedies for immediate need, taken from the nearest depot for supplies. These supplies are purchased from a fund which has existed from the beginning of this work, contributions having never been solicited. Once only the coffer was empty for a morning; but in the afternoon a check for $50 came from Chicago, the giver being a stranger.

Four dollars a month is allowed each nurse for car-fare, the average amount spent being about thirty cents a day, varying, of course, with the allotted districts or the amount of illness therein.

Arrived at the place indicated, the nurse quickly discerns the patient's need, and ministers to it, as we shall learn in the cases cited below. Discretion is given concerning the length of visits, which vary from a few minutes to several hours. In emergency cases the nurse will remain all night; but, as a rule, no night duty is required.

If the patient is suffering from want of proper nourishment, owing to poverty or ignorance, application is immediately made to the nearest branch of the Diet Kitchen Association; and arrangements are made for a daily ration, if it be needful.

Those who are familiar with the ignorant prejudice existing among the poor against hospitals will be much interested to learn that no small good is done by these nurses in persuading the sick to accompany them to a hospital where recovery seems possible.

A new and much needed charity, which gives free medical attend-

ance in confinement at their homes to women unable to pay for such services, has lately been opened in Broome Street, and is a most valuable ally of the missionary nurse.

When such service is needed, the nurse encourages the putting by of small earnings, teaches economy in housekeeping, neatness in person and home, and urges the importance of observing the proprieties and simple courtesies of life. The influence of her visits is felt after the mother's recovery, when the children complain that "ma does not wash them as clean as nurse did." The children are taught how to care for the sick mother, and instruction is given in the preparation of food for the family and for the invalid. As handmaiden of the City Mission and Tract Society, the nurse prepares the way for the visits of the missionary.

She also investigates the patient's clothing, gives material to be made up by the members of the family, or, when absolutely necessary, gives simple garments.

There is need of great discretion in many cases; for too often a woman who has been helped in her first extremity, with clothing for herself and baby, will make no provision when a second time of need approaches. The remedy, not always successful, for this evil lies in the encouragements and suggestions given by the nurse some months in advance.

Two diaries are provided for the nurse, with a page for each day, so arranged that a detailed account of the work can be kept in the simplest manner. One of these diaries contains printed forms for the months of January, March, May, July, September, and November. The other book provides for the intervening months, in order that, when the nurse gives in her report for one month, she may receive the other book in which to keep the record for the ensuing month. This plan, also, gives the Superintendent ample time to study the reports, each diary remaining one month in her hands.

A full report of moneys received and disbursed is also exacted.

The importance of a day of rest, each week, is urged upon the workers, who are permitted to take it in two half days, if they so prefer. So interested do the nurses become in their patients that they frequently sacrifice this rest day, and the records show more weeks containing seven days of work than six.

Having studied the details of this admirable and most practical system, we naturally ask, Who are the nurses, where do they come from, and why do they take up this work? They are women of edu-

cation and refinement, with heart and brain fitted for the work, together with a vigor of body necessary to carry it on. They come from different training schools, some entering the work immediately after graduation, others after several years of experience in private nursing.

Do you ask for the motive? So far as my observation and research have gone, the single motive is consecration to the service of Him who, eighteen centuries ago, went about doing good, whose life and teachings are bearing fruit in this Conference to-day.

We have thus learned how much good can be done by helping the poor in this way, and how that good is made permanent by the teaching which accompanies the help.

One lesson remains, which we shall put in the form of a question: Why should this noble work be done only by those who are obliged to earn their daily bread? If we look around, we see many women whose hands are filled with duties they may not lay down. They can share in this work only by giving of their abundance to support a substitute.

Are there not some who, with ample means and wide experience of life, find themselves to-day on "waiting orders," wondering how and where they can best serve God and their fellow-creatures?

Great exigencies bring such women to the front. In olden time the plague, in our own day the yellow fever, has brought out volunteers, ladies of position and wealth; and they have proved that love and prowess can be combined in true womanhood.

Two obstacles to this plan are always brought up by the friends of the volunteer nurse. The first is that one accustomed to a sheltered life would be greatly distressed by the rude treatment and even insult to which she might be exposed: the other so-called obstacle is the danger of infection.

To these objections we can only state that in ten years' work there have been only two cases in which the nurses have brought back infection, and then only measles and "diphtheretic" sore throat. Never once has insult been offered to a nurse of the New York City Mission. On the contrary, these women are regarded with the utmost respect, and even affectionate reverence when they become personally known to the people.

An instance which has come under the observation of the writer will suffice to illustrate the practical working of the system we have been investigating. One of our up-town physicians was called upon to

visit a consumptive patient in Mulberry Street. He found the man lying on a miserable haircloth sofa, springless and unclean. The wife had died long before, leaving three children, a girl of fifteen and two boys. The family lived in two rooms, one of which could only be aired or lighted through the other. The children were neglected. The nurse visited them, cared for the man, and cleaned up the children, who learned to love her. The man lingered only a few weeks, but there is promise of good result from the influence which has been gained over the children.

We close this paper with two extracts from the printed report of the nurses: —

In my experience as a trained nurse among the poor, especially women, I have found that loving sympathy and a practical knowledge of their needs, expressed by a warm grasp of the hand, showing that we feel for them, have helped as much to alleviate their suffering, and sometimes even more than the bottle of medicine or the grocery ticket. To make their beds fresh, give a sponge bath, instruct in the care of their sick children, providing the garments so essential to their recovery, caring for the little strangers so constantly arriving,— all these have a good effect, and tend toward their uplifting; but the "greatest" power of all, as Paul says, "is love."

By constant visits to their homes in sickness, we learn of their heroic efforts and self-sacrifice to earn bread for those they love. When we see this, how can we help loving them and sometimes telling them of it, too?

I was told by a physician that I might be able to do something for Mrs. H., living in N. Street. I went there, and on the top floor found a young mother, twenty-two years old, in the last stages of consumption. Her face showed that she was not only suffering in body, but that her mind was not at peace with God.

She was lying on an old couch, no pillow under her head, and barely enough covering to cover her. Mrs. H.'s grandmother was hobbling about barefooted, trying to care for the three months' old baby, a sickly, puny thing, with a face that looked nearly as old as the old woman herself.

At the first visit I could do very little for them; but, as I sat by the little mother and saw her misery, I remembered a soft pillow and some blankets I had seen in the Dorcas room at the Bible House, and decided that I could make her much more comfortable. These, with flannels I found on my return, and a reclining chair that I loaned, so that a change of position might afford her a rest, increased her comfort greatly. Then came to remembrance the Babies' Hospital, where the soon-to-be motherless baby could be taken, and every possible thing done to prolong the little life. The mother was

not only willing, but anxious for the baby to go; and, when told it was admitted, one-half her burdens seemed to be taken away.

She was visited nearly every day, and always something taken to make her more comfortable. As her bodily needs were ministered to, her spiritual needs were not forgotten; and, as each day her body grew weaker and weaker her face grew brighter and happier.

THE TRAINING SCHOOLS OF THE FUTURE.

BY EDWARD COWLES, M.D.,

SUPERINTENDENT OF THE MCLEAN ASYLUM FOR THE INSANE, SOMERVILLE, MASS.

It is one of the marvels and blessings in the progress of the present age that in the time of one generation so great and universal a reform has been brought about as that in the nursing of the sick. It is marvellous also that so good a thing, and one so eagerly accepted, should have waited so long for Florence Nightingale to show the world its need.

The history of all this has become household words; and the purpose of this paper will be, not so much to dwell upon what nursing-reform has already so nobly achieved, but to present the proposition that we are as yet but at the beginning of the grand results of which we may be living witnesses if we will only put our hands to the work in the right way.

There is no longer need of presenting evidence and arguments to show that the trained nurse is essential to a successful hospital, her value to both patient and physician, and the nobility and attractiveness of her calling as a profession for women. It is only seventeen years since general hospital training schools were introduced into this country, almost simultaneously at the Bellevue Hospital, Massachusetts General Hospital, and the New Haven Hospital, following the plan of Miss Nightingale's St. Thomas Hospital School. This should not detract, however, from the great credit due to the New England Hospital for Women: at its foundation in 1863, one of its three chief objects was declared in the by-laws to be "to train nurses for the care of the sick." This hospital actually graduated the first "trained nurses" educated in America. Now there is probably no one of our hospitals of any importance that does not have its training school or is not moved by the question of adopting the

school system. It is only within two or three years, however, that this could be said of a few of the hospitals for the insane; for it is in these hospitals that even now there is but the beginning of as great a reform as has been accomplished in the general hospitals. The claim of the insane is of the strongest kind for the blessing of the intelligent nursing that it is perfectly practicable for them to have. It is the purpose of this paper to emphasize this, and to urge the importance and practicability of training nurses in the hospitals for them, not only for their immediate benefit, but for that of the country at large.

The adoption of the training-school system in the general hospitals of many cities throughout the country has been mentioned. But though the system has been successfully and very usefully extended to the smaller hospitals, now becoming so common in the larger towns, there is still a tendency to think that to the larger hospitals of the great cities belongs the real work of training nurses, while the smaller ones — the town and cottage hospitals — should not aspire to the pretension of having training schools. Here also is a point for the enlightenment of even the professional mind of the country. It is even sometimes said of the schools already successfully established that their work will soon be overdone and the market overstocked with their graduates. The time has passed for pessimistic obstructionists to say, "You cannot find women enough who want to be nurses,"— "They will not find employment when they are trained," — or, worst saying of all, "They will leave your hospitals and asylums as soon as they are trained, and you will get no good from your labor with them."

All such conceptions, that limit the active promotion of this great reform, arise from too narrow a view of its importance and its scope. The simple truth is that, aside from their service in the hospitals, trained nurses are yet so few in number that they are practically luxuries for the well-to-do, in private life. It is a matter of supply and demand. The supply must first create the demand, and, the value of such nurses being made known, then the demand will call forth the adequate supply for the larger needs of the country in general. These reactions of a gradually increasing demand and supply will be accompanied, in due time, by a reduction in the cost of the service of such nurses. This is an important factor in the extension of their usefulness. They ought not only to be as common in every country town and village as physicians are, but there should be many more

of them. This is the ideal condition to which we should aim; and every hospital in the land, whether large or small, general or special, as for the care of the insane, may educate nurses for its own purposes, and at the same time find its own advantage in supplying the public need of its own vicinity. All the graduates that all can produce may be sent out without overrunning the field for their employment, and the schools in the great hospitals may become largely the normal or higher schools of nursing.

These may seem to be visionary statements: their truth can be shown by a consideration of some of the elements of this great reform now but fairly begun. The movement is still at the stage in which the supply is creating the demand. Comparatively few people in the great population of this country yet have any adequate knowledge of the value of skilled nursing, and the large majority have not the means of obtaining that boon of which they ought to have the benefits. The work of the Boston Directory for Nurses, which is a central point in this regard for all of New England, goes to prove the truth of these statements; and it is of great interest as exemplifying the process of evolution of this beneficent reform. In its existence of eleven years, to September, 1889, the results accomplished by the directory may be represented in gross as follows:*—

Total number of nurses registered in eleven years, ...		969
Total nominally available, September, 1889:—		
Male nurses, ...	84	
Non-graduate female nurses, ...	426	
Graduate female nurses, ...	315	
Masseuses, ...	14	839

The average registration is about 100 per year. The "casualties" of the last of the period of eleven years were 29. The average net increase for several years has been about 50 per year, and the proportional number of trained nurses registered has increased relatively to the untrained. The "casualties," however, for the last year included only two deaths. Other nurses married or left the profession temporarily or permanently for various reasons; but they were not lost to the cause, as they carried their valuable knowledge and experience into domestic and other relations, where they are calculated to be always useful. The annual increment of fifty nurses per year in the directory comes chiefly, of course, from the larger hos-

* Compare article "Nursing Reform for the Insane," *American Journal of Insanity*, October, 1887, by the writer of this paper.

pitals of the vicinity,— the New England Hospital for Women, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston City Hospital and Lying-in Hospital, and McLean Asylum. The product of all these is about eighty nurses per year. There are also among those registered in the Directory representatives of the general hospitals at Portland, Lowell, Lawrence, Providence, New Bedford, and New Haven, and a few from outside of New England. All of these hospitals, of course, chiefly furnish nurses for their own immediate vicinities. Some of the other new hospitals recently established, or now under construction or projected, in Eastern New England are at Hanover, Concord, Manchester, Portsmouth, Lawrence, Malden, Lynn, Cambridge, Newton, Waltham, Framingham, Worcester, Quincy, Taunton, Woonsocket, and Newport. There are doubtless others, for this list is not pretended to be complete.

The Boston Directory (notwithstanding its increase of business) finds therefore a cessation of calls from all such new centres of self-supply as they become established. Its work of the last year shows the growing preference for trained nurses, of whom 271 were given employment, while only 170 non-graduates were accepted by applicants for nurses. Only five men were found employment during the year. Some further indications are most significant. The rate paid to trained female nurses was in the first years quite uniformly $15 per week, with somewhat more for nursing male patients. Three years ago it was thought that the increasing supply would soon lower the rates; but, on the contrary, a common charge is now $21 and $25 per week by experienced nurses, and the former rate is largely limited to recent graduates or the untrained. Male nurses commonly receive $4 and $5 per day. These figures sustain the statement that in New England the demand is increasing faster than the supply, and the hospital trained nurse is still a luxury really beyond the means of the great masses of people. There ought to be more nurses, and good ones should be had at much less cost. It is estimated that in Great Britain there are fifteen thousand to twenty thousand trained nurses in the profession, and it is no bar to their continued production by the hospitals. When will America be supplied in like proportion?

Let us now consider the future of the profession of nursing. Its usefulness, as already demonstrated, indicates what it may be when there is a general diffusion of its services throughout the country. Let it be supposed that the ideal conditions to which we should aim

have been attained,— it may be more than one generation hereafter, — and that intelligent and skilled nursing is available for all the sick. We may consider first what will be the nature of its benefits, and next how they are to be attained.

The value of an intelligent, instructed nurse is now too obvious to need statement here. Every physician who knows about it would be glad to have such nursing for every one of his patients, poor as well as rich. Should such a condition of things ever come about, it would mean that commonly throughout the country there will be nurses practising their profession as such, there will be married women who have had special training as nurses, there will be single women whose home duties have called them away from the active practice in the larger towns of the profession in which they are skilled, and they will be the neighborhood nurses. It goes without saying that the cause of preventive medicine will thus be advanced most effectively beyond anything we can now conceive, not only in general hygiene, but in all that pertains to the early recognition of disease in general medicine, and as well of the requirements in mental hygiene and the protection, care, and treatment of the insane. Does this picture of a future Utopia appear more impossible of realization than it would have seemed for our fathers, in the first half of the present century, to have been told of what Florence Nightingale's reform has already done for us? Certainly, these considerations show that there will be ample room for a general diffusion of all knowledge that training in nursing implies. This is the very reason for being of the Emergency and Hygiene Associations, that are so zealously beginning their work in the instruction of the general public. All these efforts are calculated to do great good, and should be fostered in every way. They reach, along their own peculiar lines, results that cannot otherwise be attained. They educate the people to see the need of education in such matters. Every such movement will find its true province in the later adjustments that must come of the relations of all the newly organized forces that are working for the general good.

Having set forth the possible benefits that may be hoped for, it must now be shown how they are likely to be attained. The elements of the problem must first be considered. Of course the methods of procedure, in the future progress of the reform, must be an evolution from and an improvement upon what has already been done. A study of these results and the processes by which they have been gained reveals two fundamental principles essential to

practical success. It is rather that these principles have had room to work freely than that they have been fully recognized. They are: (1) The giving to the nurse sufficient knowledge of disease to teach her what to do, and thereby arousing the professional spirit and giving intelligent play to the sympathetic feelings of the woman. (2) The stimulation of a wholesome self-interest, by showing that in a respectable and philanthropic calling she may honorably support herself and get means to help those dear to her, as is her duty. The progress of the reform, in a material degree, has been dependent upon this natural element of self-help in human nature and our social conditions.

Now, any hope that we may have of furthering this reform and enlarging its scope must depend upon our recognition and careful observance of these two principles. We may make use of them to attain philanthropic ends. We may accept self-sacrifice in a good cause and the exercise of the missionary spirit, when they come to our aid; and we do find both of these wonderfully developed, incidentally to the *business* of nursing the sick and the insane. We may stimulate and exalt to a great degree in some persons the altruistic element in this professional service, but this philanthropy must be worked by human instruments that must live. From the foregoing considerations it follows therefore that, if we would have intelligent and proper service for the sick in any hospital or anywhere, it must be by instructing intelligence in the special work. Almost everybody knows this well enough now. But, moreover, we must see to it that to every individual so employed there must be held up the possibility of gaining something desirable beyond the doing of the service we ask: there must be a forecast of a profitable or satisfactory self-supporting occupation. This is the principle that is not yet sufficiently recognized. So far in the history of nursing-reform the two principles stated have really had free play and effect,— admitting, of course, the pure philanthropy of those who have had to inaugurate and conduct the organizations through which alone systematic instruction can be given to those who are to render the personal services required by this profession. The facts of the inducements of lucrative work and personal credit have been the potent forces that have given the reform its vitality and its momentum. Philanthropy is best gaining its ends by making use of these inducements. It is entirely right that these motive influences should continue to operate, and that the highly trained nurses of the great hospitals should mainly serve the

wealthier classes and be well paid for such service, or become teachers of others and be well rewarded for their especially skilled labors. The missionary spirit abounds among them in a due degree, it is true, and finds its fields in continued hospital service, in district-nursing, and the like; but there is no law nor sentiment by which skilled nurses may be required to abate anything of their wage-earning power in performing poorly rewarded labor, from a professional point of view. We may ask them to give as we give. For sweet charity's sake they do much: let no one say anything in qualification of this. But, as a practical business matter, we must provide otherwise for that greater part of the world's nursing which can only be had when afforded at a moderate cost to those who receive the service, and by those who give it. There is no derogation, in these statements, of the nobility of the profession of nursing. Let us claim for it the same kind of nobility that is accorded to the medical profession. Let both professions make their own living. Those who are engaged in promoting charitable works will greatly magnify the results they gain, by as much as they contrive to make those results incidental to the labors of a self-supporting calling. The physician finds his school in the hospital and the dispensary district, and gives nobly of his services to the poor. May not the nurse so combine her schooling and charity-giving?

A broad estimate might be made, by way of illustration, of the proportional relations between the different kinds of nursing service which are required in the broad field that waits for it, based upon the differences of training, of compensation, and of ability of people to pay. It might be said that one-tenth of all the future nursing will be done for the wealthy classes by nurses trained in the great hospitals; two-tenths will be done for the poor within the hospitals; and two-tenths will be done for the poor in dispensary and district work. The remaining five-tenths will have to be done at moderate rates, and chiefly by nurses trained in the small hospitals, or otherwise. This training must be done largely in the country towns, in the presence of, and in exact adaptation to, the work and the conditions under which it is to be done. The first three-tenths, including the well-to-do and the poor in hospitals, according to this enumeration, will be sufficiently well provided for by the present established systems in the great hospitals. The district charity or dispensary service must have greatly enlarged and more effective methods to accomplish the work that lies before it. In fact, this work has only yet been

tentatively attempted. There remains the large field of city nursing at moderate cost, and that in the country districts, for which there will be necessary larger sources of supply. There must be a special evolution of methods, of which there has not been until recently any adequate conception.

It has been set forth as one of the main propositions of this present writing that by far the larger part of the field to be covered by this eminently philanthropic, life-saving, disease-preventing reform has as yet received no proper recognition, the importance of which it is desired here to emphasize. Now, this discussion comes to the chief point of our inquiry, as to how we may conceive it possible to accomplish practically, without too great labor and cost, the raising up of a self-supporting nursing force for the general service of the country at large. There have now been established in America, with the proof of demonstration, the beginnings of two movements destined to have a large influence in working out the extensive results here pictured as so desirable. These two methods are shown to be ready at our hands for the practical carrying on of this great purpose, on a larger and more effective scale than ever before, with the incidental accomplishment of the strictly charitable work of nursing the poor that it is found so difficult to establish. These two methods are: —

1. A distinctly new system of training in general nursing.

2. The great work of training nurses of which the hospitals for the insane are easily capable.

1. The new system of training nurses may now be considered. The general extension of the present school system, even as it is put in practice in New England with all its hospitals, as has been described, cannot supply the great field of common nursing, so to speak, that has its strongest claims upon the general physicians, who practise among the poor or those of moderate means, either in town or country. To discover a system of training nurses for this service that will even only largely aid in accomplishing the important results so much to be desired is to make an epoch in the evolution of modern progress. It is inspiring to recognize the fact that such a discovery has been made and its value demonstrated within the last five years. It has been admirably described as "A New Way of Training Nurses" in a little book bearing that title,* by Alfred

* Published in Boston. Cupples & Hurd. 1888.

Worcester, M.D., to whom the credit is due of devising and inaugurating the system in the Waltham Training School for Nurses, at Waltham, Mass. The great merits of the system are its simplicity, ease of organization, elasticity of adaptation to large or small requirements, effectiveness, and the fact that it can be put into operation in any large or small city or town of a few thousand inhabitants, where a few physicians will co-operate in giving the required lectures. Above all, *it is unique in that it needs no hospital as a foundation*, while yet it may be an adjunct and an aid to the support of one; *and in that it is self-supporting*, or even more than that, under favorable circumstances. The poor of the community are nursed without charge or at very low rates; the well-to-do have nursing as good as any; night watchers and day nurses, by the hour, day, or week, can be furnished on call for all the country round. If any one be sceptical as to any part of this, let him read the book and visit Waltham,— it is the only place in the world where such a thing can be seen,— and the truth of all that is here said of it will be accepted.

The history of this School is most interesting and instructive. Every one interested in these matters should read Dr. Worcester's entertaining book, noting that the most telling results have come to pass in the two years since it was published. He had been familiar with good nursing, and knew by experience how to teach ordinary young women to be excellent lying-in nurses.* This caused an intensification of some trying experiences with the old-style nurse. He conceived it to be the "physician's duty not only to give proper directions for the management of every patient under his charge, but also to see that his orders are intelligently obeyed." "There is no excuse," he says, "in the fact that trusty agents are not at his hand, for it is his business to provide them; and, until he can be sure of intelligent, faithful nursing service, he must not undertake the management of more cases of sickness than he can in person superintend." This is a high conception of a physician's responsibility, but it determined the effort to have instructed nurses in all cases. But only the rich could afford the city-trained nurse, and Dr. Worcester's problem was "to demonstrate the way in which the supply of trained nurses can be so increased that their services may be had in every village of the land." His conclusion was that, "in the smaller towns and villages, the physicians, if they desire the great advantages of this new dispen-

* "Monthly Nursing." Lectures given to nurses at the Boston Lying-in Hospital. By A. Worcester, M.D. Boston, 1886.

sation, *must train their own nurses.*" He believed that "there would be no trouble in finding young and strong women well fitted and eager for such training." There was no hospital in Waltham; but interest was aroused, a plan adopted, and a school organized with seven pupils in 1885, the method being "based upon the facts, first, that nurses can be well trained in private practice outside of hospital walls; and, second, that excellent service is given by the student-nurses during their course of training." It was a recourse to the old way of training physicians by accompanying their preceptors in their general practice, except that by this method the nurses can be trained in all they need to know.

The responsibility of the School was assumed by the lady managers. Some money was raised by donations for the first expenses. Rooms were obtained for a headquarters, where the nurses could board when not on duty, and go to receive their daily instruction at the regular afternoon lesson hour. A trained nurse was employed to be superintendent, to manage the School, conduct class exercises, and visit particular cases, when need be, where the student-nurses were employed. A two years' course of instruction was prescribed. Brief courses of lectures were given by a few physicians. The student-nurses of the first year did service gratuitously or for small compensation for the patients of these physicians. The second year students were sent out upon the call of any physician, as in some of the general hospitals. And the School prospered,— unlike many other reforms, paying its own way.

The charge for student nurses of the first year is $1.25 per day, or $7 per week, and board; of the second year, $1.50 per day, or $10 per week. When it is not convenient for the family to furnish board, it is provided at the School at an additional charge of fifty cents per day. The School pays the pupils $9 and $12 per month for the first and second years respectively, and is supported by the income, with a balance of profit. The donations for the first year amounted to $233; for the last of the five years, $55. The expenses of the first year were $1,051; for the last year, $4,952. The earnings for the first year were $888; for the last year, $5,748. There is now a balance in the treasury of over $1,000. The School occupies a dormitory building, with class-room, and pays an annual rental; but the building has been completely furnished by the School, at an expense exceeding the entire amount of the donations. Dr. Worcester writes: "The total of donations is less than the outlay in permanent fittings;

and, after the end of the second year, the yearly donations amounted to less than the balance carried forward to the School's credit. Indeed, after the second year, they came, in spite of our protest that we needed nothing; but the donors insisted on continuing the charity we originally asked for. Instead of asking for money outright, we asked for money for charity nursing; that is, we asked Mrs. S. to give to the nursing of Mrs. B., and so on. Now we can do all of the charity nursing without extra help, our earnings being so largely in excess of our expenses." From this it appears possible to establish such a school by making an investment in the plant, and having it repaid in a few years; but of course it is best to organize in a small way upon donations, and incur no debts.

The School has graduated three classes of nurses,— a total of twenty-five; and there are as many more now engaged in the work as pupils. Some of these graduates have continued in its service for a time, and, with the student-nurses, have done a large amount of work in all the country round, at the rates before stated, together with a great deal of charity work, whenever or wherever it was needed, on the call of any one of the physicians of the School. Their especial training in home-nursing makes these nurses especially acceptable to families and physicians. They say, "Better nurses cannot be found." It is an inspiration to witness their love of work among the poor. The amount of the service the School has rendered is indicated by the record of the employment of the nurses. In the first year, it was 1,027 days; in the last of the five years, 5,378 days, or 78 per cent. of all the days for which there were nurses ready for service. The demand for these nurses is rapidly increasing in the towns about Waltham. At the Boston Directory is noted an absence of calls from this section. The class of the coming year is to be of twenty pupils,— nearly double the number of any previous year. A very significant circumstance is the fact that a number of the graduate nurses have been most acceptably employed in some of the small hospitals of this section of the State as being well-qualified nurses. Another significant fact is in proof of the statements here made as to the demand for such nurses. The earlier graduates of this School now command the higher compensation equal to that received by the city-trained nurses. This is good. It stimulates the progress of the cause.

A small hospital is an outgrowth of these conditions; but it is an independent establishment, and pays the School for the service of

those nurses it employs at cost, and at the same time it furnishes a valuable adjunct to the means of training. But the success of the School was established without the hospital.

While this system includes the method of outside pay service adopted by some of the general hospitals in the second of their school years, and while it is practised to some extent by the "Deaconess Houses," or orders of nursing sisterhoods, where there are limitations to expansion, it is obvious that an underlying principle has here an original and unique application. It is the principle of the conservation of values: the knowledge of the physician has a value; this is multiplied by imparting it to a class of nurses; they turn it into money in a ready market plus a large amount of gratuitous nursing service enjoyed not only by those unable to pay for it, but also by the physicians and their families; the money earned pays the expenses of the establishment. Putting together the first and last terms in this sequence of elements of the system, the lady managers, giving freely of their time and effort, get their rich return in the large amount of charity nursing accomplished; the physicians for a little time and effort are repaid many times over by the better nursing of their patients; the nurses pay for their education by giving their time and service, and, when all is done, they have a self-supporting profession; the public has brought within its reach and means good nursing, for which it is glad to pay.

It is easy to see how a small hospital can make profit to itself and fulfil a plain duty to its surrounding community by adapting this plan to its own needs. But, if a school is to be attempted in such a hospital, it should have a competent and well-paid head, who is capable of overcoming the narrow limitations of the field of instruction. By using the Waltham plan there will be a greater variety of practical work, and the teaching may be so developed as to turn out really educated nurses. Then more women will be trained, more nursing will be done for the public that supports the hospital, and more interest will be taken in it because of the greater good received from it. In a section of a large city, such a school for "teaching nurses in private practice," or "home-nursing," may be established. A prime point is not to proclaim its object as charity nursing,—that would repel the people who like to pay and from whom the school must get its support: the charity work will be done *incidentally*,—it will actually be wanted as largely the basis of the teaching. The organizations for "District Nursing" may find their

field and their usefulness enlarged by turning their attention directly to the training of nurses *by means of their charity work.* The Visiting Nurse Society of Philadelphia is making an interesting adaptation of this system.

The population of Waltham was, in 1888, about 16,000. It is evident that in a smaller town this training-school system would work successfully on a smaller scale. There is enough in the experience of the Waltham School to show that there would be a ready absorption of a large amount of nursing work under similar conditions. Even there, five years ago, there was at first little faith, other than Dr. Worcester's, that there was any place for such work there. The Waltham system has demonstrated itself as an admirable and efficient contribution to the urgent needs of the time.

Large credit and gratitude are due, and will in time be abundantly given, to Dr. Worcester for his happy inspiration, to the lady managers who have done so much to aid in working out the plan of the School so that others have only to follow their leading, and to Miss Hackett, its superintendent, who has largely shared in making it successful.

2. It remains to speak briefly of the claim of the public, in the country at large, upon the hospitals for the insane for the great work of which they are capable. The general adoption of the Waltham system, for training in "Home" and "Visiting Nursing," easy as it is to organize, now that the way is shown, depends still upon the voluntary efforts of wide-awake people in all the eligible localities throughout the whole land. It would be long waiting in some parts of our great country for this New England notion to become pervasive. But the hospitals for the insane are well-organized establishments, and well distributed among the population of the various States. There is no one thing that could now be done in regard to them that will yield so much direct benefit to the patients, profit to the hospitals in furthering their prime purpose of curing the sick, and benefit to the State in promoting the welfare of its citizens by the diffusion among them of this education, as the establishment of such schools in all such hospitals. They would be educational, in the strictest sense of the word. As a means of mental training of the young men and women in regular class recitations, in the taking down and writing out of notes of lectures and of original reports of cases, and in the acquirement of useful knowledge, such schools are like high schools. They have the claim of industrial schools: they

would give special training, not only in a useful business, but one that has a special economic value to the State in the prevention of disease, besides the amelioration and abbreviation of disease. They have also the claim of normal schools: they would produce the teachers for smaller local schools, besides diffusing instruction upon the most vital matters. They are entitled to the fostering care and support of the State. But this need not be directly claimed: the insane in the hospitals are entitled to the benefits that modern enlightenment in these matters brings. The State has a right to such returns for money spent upon its hospitals; but let it be liberal to the nursing service. The added expense of schools in such hospitals is relatively very small: it would be money well spent if the expense were much greater than it need be to introduce and carry on this reform. It makes a true hospital of every asylum in which such training of nurses is done. The medical staff that joins in the teaching is directly benefited and made more efficient by such a duty. He who teaches learns.

General nursing can be well taught in hospitals for the insane: that is proved by the last eight years' work of the McLean Asylum Training School for Nurses, with its 92 graduates, including 20 men, representing some of the earliest work in the training of male nurses. The annual product will hereafter be 20 to 30 nurses; ten or twelve of these each year will be men. The graduates of the McLean Asylum School have acquitted themselves well in general nursing in private families, in competition with the highly trained nurses of the city schools.

In the establishment of Asylum Schools, the two fundamental principles should never be forgotten: —

1. The nurses should be given a full course of didactic instruction in general nursing, and as much as possible of practical work. It is remarkable how effective a use can be made of the conditions of an asylum truly hospitalized. The truth is that a large, well-organized asylum has some positive advantages in this regard over the small general hospital.

2. The plan of training should include the intention of making the pupils successful in private nursing among the people from whom they come. Even in a population with limited means, the people will attach a special value to the service of the instructed nurse; and her knowledge will thereby increase her power of self-support relatively to that of other members of the community in which she lives.

The question of thoroughness of training is a most important one. No disregard of that should be implied by this advocating of such variations in the plans of conducting schools. The Waltham method is good *because* its work is so thorough and earnest that it is a model for its purpose. Every large asylum for the insane, with its considerable population long resident, has its hospital cases. With a proper organization of a school and the development of the "hospital idea," the charge that the training in it is "one-sided" cannot be sustained. There is bodily nursing enough to instruct the nurses well in its technique. But, above all things, let nothing be called a "school" unless it is thoroughly organized and gives a full course, amplifying the didactic, if there is any lack of practical instruction. There is one other point that demands broad-minded consideration. In standing up for the "profession" of nursing, it should be remembered that its work cannot be limited to "professionals," as should be the practice of medicine: it is more of an art and less of a science. Let all teachers master its scientific side, if desirable; but the art of nursing consists largely of what every mother of a family, every woman, should know. The great schools will claim no monopoly of this knowledge: it must be brought down to the people for whom its attainment is most difficult, whose need must longest wait. There is an element of common education in it, and there should be "common schools" in nursing as well as "academies"; and there is the highest need of the "university" training of their teachers. It should be remembered also that there is such a thing as overtraining women for the common nursing,— this will never be done by the relatively few that can be highly trained. The more the people are trained to know of these things, the more will they appreciate and exalt in their esteem the skilled professional nurse. Any question of the granting of diplomas can be settled as we go along. The schools we must have.

The coming of this new dispensation imposes higher obligations upon the medical profession everywhere. Now that there is shown to be a way to provide "trusty agents," the physician's duty is plainly greater "to see that his orders are intelligently obeyed," as Dr. Worcester declares. It is plain, too, that physicians, in the greater part, must "train their own nurses"; and it is shown that they can do it. The country will absorb all such knowledge that can be given, and all the trained service that can be produced by the two new methods here advocated. The conditions to be met may be illus-

trated by a circumstance that has recently come to the writer's knowledge. In the western part of a large Southern State on the Atlantic coast there is a considerable section of the country in which the only woman who is regarded and valued as having any qualification as a nurse is one who was for a time an attendant in the State Hospital for the Insane. It is obvious, in regard to her, that good training, such as is to be given under the new dispensation now beginning, would have greatly enlarged the usefulness and acceptability of this nurse. A like neighboring section of the same country has furnished a pupil of the best capacity to a Northern Asylum School for Nurses, from which she may return to be a great blessing to her native State if the opportunity is but given her,— perhaps in a hospital school. Such wide fields lie open and waiting in every State, where there may be an uplifting of the cause of humanity, and of the scientific treatment of the sick and the insane, through the inspiration that will surely flow from the influence of this great reform. It is a reform not limited in its deepening and broadening influence to the service of nursing the sick, noble as that may be: it puts into the hands of physicians a new order of instruments,— intelligent and thinking,— that teach their users. The spirit of humanity to man has been given a new embodiment.

THE SCIENCE OF NURSING.— A PLEA.

BY ANNA M. FULLERTON,

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When first asked to prepare a paper on Training Schools for Nurses, for the Conference of Charities, my impulse was to decline the honor; for the duties of a very busy life made me feel that it would be impossible for me to secure the time necessary for so important a work.

The subject, however, is one in which I feel deeply interested, and one of such vital importance to the nation that I feel constrained to bring before you a few thoughts concerning it, which have much occupied my own mind. Begging your clemency, therefore, for my abruptness and want of finish, I shall enter upon my theme by considering it under the following heads: —

1. The importance of nursing, as a profession.
2. The requirements of scientific nursing.

3. Methods of instruction and discipline necessary to the development of trained workers.

4. The importance of placing trained nurses in all institutions of charity and correction.

5. The advantages to be gained by the establishment of National Training Schools for Nurses.

1. The importance of nursing as a profession.

In this practical age there is probably no science that has made the rapid strides achieved by medicine, especially in the departments of surgery and obstetric practice. This result is due, not only to the advancement of knowledge in the better understanding of the structure of the human body and its needs, but, I think I may say, largely to the evolution in modern times of the sister-science of Trained Nursing. The Minister of War in France published in 1870 a Manual for the Visiting Infirmary of Paris, in which he said, "It does not suffice for the cure of the sick that the *physician* should act according to the rules of his art: it is also necessary that he obtain a devout and intelligent concurrence in his work from the persons who assist him."

The French words "*garde malade*," as applied to nurses, illustrate most fittingly the nature of a nurse's duty,— the vigilant and intelligent care which she should exercise over the well-being of those intrusted to her.

In an address recently read before the Philadelphia Academy of Surgery, Professor John B. Roberts states, "The crowning achievement of modern surgery is its certainty of result." Again, he speaks of this certainty of success in wound surgery, depending on the thoroughness with which the maxims of asepsis and antisepsis are carried out. Not to the surgeon alone, however, is a thorough understanding of these principles which have revolutionized surgery necessary. The nurse, upon whom must devolve the preparations for such operations, and to whom is intrusted the after-care of the patient, must be just as rigid in the observance of aseptic and antiseptic precautions as the surgeon, in order to insure the desired result.

Professor Theophilus Parvin, in his lectures on Obstetric Nursing, says: "The glory of recent obstetrics is not the axis-traction forceps, and neither Porro's nor the improved Cæsarean operations. Greater than any, greater than all of these, in beneficent results, is the dis-

covery that by asepsis and antisepsis an almost absolute immunity from dangerous disease can be secured to women in child-bed." "In a word, not only mortality, but also morbidity, has been marvellously lessened by the faithful and intelligent use of aseptic precautions and of antiseptic means. And the day is surely coming, if not already present, when the occurrence of septicæmia in the puerpera will lead to the question, Who hath sinned, the doctor or the nurse, that the woman is in peril or perishes?"

After such statements as the above, and the personal experience many of us have had of the luxury of having things properly done in the sick-room, can we doubt the importance of Trained Nursing among the sciences of the day? The devoted mother, sister, or wife, without ideas of scientific nursing, has often been the physician's and surgeon's bane rather than his blessing. Should the glorious possibilities of the Art of Healing be hampered in this day for the want of attention to the minute details devolving upon the nurse?

This leads me to speak of the second division of my subject: —

The requirements of scientific nursing.

"The true nurse is not a manufacture, but an independent, growing personality. Intelligent brain, kindly nature, sympathetic heart, and skilled hand must be united. She is a living soul as well as an active body, and the two must blend their forces to make her life a blessed harmony." The successful nurse is largely so by virtue of her own inherent fibre. Efficient work, however, in any line of learning or industry, requires more than simple intelligence and kindliness of nature. Skill, such as can come alone from a training adapted to meet the requirements of each particular trade or profession, is an absolute necessity. Nature and environment serve to develop in each man and each woman individual traits of character and habit which fit them especially for certain lines of work.

If we accept the general axiom that some kinds of work are best adapted for men and some for women, it would seem that nursing was essentially woman's work, since it calls for the exercise of that special combination of qualities supposed to constitute *womanliness*. Men there are — patient, long-suffering, gentle, and tactful — who, without doubt, would equally succeed in the art. And, if any such feel called to the work, we would not say them nay. The "inward light" must be to man and woman alike the guide in the choice of a life-calling.

All the qualities, however, essential to make a good head of a household are essential for a good nurse. "The same constant thought for others, the same method in arrangement of work, the same forethought to meet the expected incidents of the day, the same readiness to bear the brunt of the unexpected and to make the best of circumstances, the same cheerfulness and sweet temper to allay the friction so apt to arise in a household, the same unfailing courtesy,— all these, and other qualities too many and too obvious to enumerate which go to form the guiding spirit of a well-ordered household, are equally indispensable to a nurse." "God himself," said the late Dr. Ann Preston, "made and commissioned one set of nurses; and in doing this, and adapting them to utter helplessness and weakness, what did he do? He made them love the dependence and see something to admire in the very perversities of their charge. He made them humor their caprices, and respect their reasonable and unreasonable complainings. He made them bend tenderly over the disturbed and irritated, and fold them to quiet assurance in arms made soft with love. In a word, he made *mothers;* and, other things being equal, whoever has most of the maternal tenderness and warm sympathy with the sufferer is the best nurse." So much for the character of the nurse.

But, as no one would expect goodness, kindness, and tenderness on the part of a father, brother, or husband to fit men especially for their respective vocations, although the possession of such qualities may do much to intensify their success, the woman who would be a success in her chosen profession should undergo as thorough a preparation for her calling, acquiring thus a mastery over its principles and a skill in its exercise, which can only come from a familiarity with its details. Our nation is but waking up to the fact that it has a vast working power in its women,— a power not yet fully utilized, because so far largely *untrained*, hence inefficient often in action. When public educational institutions all over the country shall give the girl an equal chance with the boy to train her intellect, when manual training schools instruct her ideas to give themselves proper expression through the work of her hands, will not woman's work be better done, and will not a greater respect for it exist throughout our land?

O fathers, brothers, and husbands, you laugh at a woman's ways as unbusiness-like; but do you give us half the chance to learn to be business-like that you give your boys? Do you think we will be any the less true to you, as mothers, sisters, wives, or daughters, if you let

us learn how to do the work that comes to us aright? Crime, poverty, disease, and death bring the necessity for labor to a woman's hands as to a man's. Should she not know *how* to work?

A poet of our own times says:—

> "The woman's cause is man's: they rise or sink
> Together, dwarfed or godlike, bond or free;
> For she, that out of Lethe scales with man
> The shining steps of nature, shares with man
> His nights, his days, moves with him to one goal,
> Stays all the fair young planet in her hands.
> If she be small, slight-natured, miserable,
> How shall *men* grow?"

Florence Nightingale, in writing many years ago of the dearth of trained women in England, says: "To answer the calls upon us for trained matrons, or superintendents, as well as for trained nurses for hospitals and nursing institutions of all kinds, we can scarcely obtain anything like sufficient living materials. People cry out and deplore the unremunerative employment for women. The true want is the other way,— women really trained and capable of good work. It is wonderful, the absence of thought which exists upon this point. As if a woman could undertake hospital management, or even the management of a single ward, in which hundreds or even thousands of lives are involved, without having learned anything about it,— any more than a man can undertake to be, for example, a professor of mathematics without having learned mathematics!"

And now let us turn to the dry bones of the subject for a moment, and learn what the technique of trained nursing requires. First of all, that a woman be truthful, honest, and earnest; for without this there is no foundation on which to build. She should be trained in habits of punctuality, quietness, trustworthiness, quickness, and personal neatness. She should be taught how to manage a patient, ward, or establishment; also, how to dress wounds and other injuries, and to perform all those minor operations which nurses are called upon to undertake; how to make and apply bandages, and pad splints for fractures; how to make patients' beds and change linen without disturbing the patient; how to prevent and dress bed-sores and arrange positions; how to apply cups, leeches, fomentations, blisters, and poultices; how to administer enemata, also to give baths, partial and general, including moist air, dry-air, and medicated baths; how to note pulse, temperature, and respiration; how

to cleanse, air, and warm patients' rooms; how to prepare and use disinfectants; what to do in emergencies and accidents; how to observe the general condition of patients with regard to appetite, skin, secretions, appearance of eruptions, chill, fever, effect of medicine and diet; how to prepare food for the sick; how to nurse various kinds of medical, surgical, and obstetrical cases, keeping accurate records for the attending physicians. These and many other duties devolve upon the trained nurse. For the future superintendent should be added a course of instruction in the administration of a hospital, including the various subjects it is necessary for a matron to become conversant with. "There are those," says Florence Nightingale, "who think that all this is intuitive in women, that they are born so, or, at least, that it comes to them without training. To such we say, By all means send us as many such geniuses as you can, for we are sorely in want of them."

3. The third division of my subject — the methods of instruction and discipline necessary to the development of trained workers — I shall not dwell upon long.

As early in the eighteenth century the necessity for military and naval instruction was greatly felt by the nations of Europe, leading to the establishment by their governments of numerous schools for training men for the army and navy, so in this day the appreciation of the true nature of disease, the acceptance of the creed that infection is the result of "infinitely small and absolutely innumerable organisms," known as microbes, capable of such rapidity of reproduction that in three days one may become three trillions,— these and similar facts should lead to the establishment throughout the world of schools for training men and women to take part in the battle for life, thus to stay the ravages of the unseen but ubiquitous and powerful foe.

Medical and nurse training schools, scientific laboratories, hospitals, and all institutions whose object it is to study the nature and management of disease should claim at least as high an interest in this peaceful nineteenth century as did the tactics of war in that of the eighteenth.

Nor would I detract from the force of my figure by making the rules for the one less rigorous than for the other. Discipline, organization, and drill make of each man in the army a mechanical instrument, by which his every act becomes a living organism, affecting the end desired. Thus should it be in the Nurse Training School. The

emergencies of disease are as sudden and serious as those of war. The *garde malade* should, therefore, never be found napping.

It is for this reason that I strongly disapprove of making a nurse's quarters, while in training, too luxurious, and rules for her government too lax. She must learn to "endure hardness as a good soldier." Therefore, the more of difficulty, privation, and self-sacrifice she is led to encounter in the school, the better fitted will she be to surmount obstacles in the practice of her profession and to maintain the standard of true helpfulness.

It is said of the military training school at West Point that records show that less than fifty per cent. of those admitted ever finish the course. The discipline is unusually stringent, the life one of Spartan simplicity, each cadet making his own bed, caring for his own shelves and for every article within his own alcove. If such methods are essential in the training to destroy life, should they not be much more so in the training to save life?

It is because of our belief in this principle that the rules of discipline in the training school with which I am connected are, so far as possible, of military exactness, the hours for work long, the trials of health, strength, and temper rigorous.

So far as her literary attainments go, the applicant for a nurse training school should have at least a thorough knowledge of the three "R's,"— reading, writing, and arithmetic. A nurse who, in taking notes on her lectures, writes that keeping a patient lying upon a rubber cloth causes her to "expire" instead of "perspire," or who talks about letting the "fuss" (pus) out of the "fusstules" (pustules), cannot be expected to keep intelligent reports of her cases, nor to take down accurately the needed directions for treatment. Competitive examinations, therefore, for entrance to such schools are desirable.

The course of instruction should comprise some teaching in anatomy, physiology, hygiene, and chemistry. The especial arrangements for theoretical and practical instruction must necessarily vary somewhat with circumstances in the different schools. Teachers and material for illustration should be generously supplied and carefully chosen. The course should be sufficiently long to enable the student to acquire the dexterity gained by constant practice.

In the better English schools, a student remains four years in connection with her training school, spending one year as probationer, one as staff-nurse, one as sister (when she has charge of a ward,

with staff nurses under her), and a fourth as superintendent of some small hospital or dispensary, or she may be sent to district nursing. Somewhat similar conditions prevail in our better schools, the term of connection with the school being, however, but about two years, as a rule. This is a mistake, especially when it is desired to train nurses for responsible posts as heads of wards or institutions. Our medical schools all through the country are increasing the length of their courses. Nurse schools should do the same. The crying need now is for *skilled* workers.

But will there be found a sufficient number of men and women willing to subject themselves to so rigorous and long-continued a course of training? I do not hesitate to answer in the affirmative; for with Carlyle I feel, "It is a calumny on men (and women, too) to say that they are roused to heroic action by ease, hope of pleasure, recompense, sugar plums of any kind, in this world or the next. In the meanest mortal there lies something nobler. . . . Difficulty, abnegation, martyrdom, death, are the *allurements* that act on the heart of man. Kindle the inner genial life of him, you have a flame which burns up all lower considerations. . . . Not by flattering our appetites; no, by awakening the Heroic that slumbers in every heart." As a matter of fact, it has been shown that in the schools of our own country, when the course of instruction has been lengthened, in the majority of cases, there has been a large increase in their numbers. Dignify labor, make the course of training for nurses a liberal education, arouse thus the enthusiasm of its votaries, and a power for good will be developed in the land, the value of which cannot be estimated. The life of Florence Nightingale gives us a fitting illustration. "I give," says she, "a quarter of a century's European experience, when I say that the happiest people, the fondest of their occupation, the most thankful for their lives, are, in my opinion, those engaged in sick nursing. But we must not think that any fit of enthusiasm will carry us through such a life as this. Nothing but the feeling that it is God's work, more than ours, that we are seeking His success and not our success, and that we have trained and fitted ourselves by every means which He has granted us to carry out His work, will enable us to go on."

4. And here we may speak, fourthly, of the importance of placing such trained workers in all institutions of charity and correction. As the discoveries of science prove more and more that sin is oftener disease than deliberate crime, the nation will treat its wards in prison,

penitentiary, reformatory, workhouse, or asylum much as we treat our sick. The physical conditions influencing mental and moral development will be more thoroughly studied, and intelligent treatment brought to bear upon the correction and control of vice.

To give an illustration of the good that may be achieved by one true woman and trained nurse in such an institution, I would cite the case of Agnes E. Jones, the pioneer of workhouse nursing, who instituted a wonderful work of reform in the Liverpool workhouse, one of the largest in England. It is said of her that "in less than three years she had reduced one of the most disorderly hospital populations in the world to something like Christian discipline, such as the police themselves wondered at. She had led so as to be of one mind and heart with her upwards of fifty nurses and probationers. She had converted a vestry to the conviction of the economy as well as humanity of nursing pauper sick by trained nurses,— the first instance of the kind in England. She had converted the Poor Law Board to these views, two of whom bore witness to this effect. She had disarmed all opposition, all sectarian zealotism, so that Roman Catholic and Unitarian, High Church and Low Church, all literally rose up and called her blessed. All, of all shades of religious creed, seemed to have merged their differences in her, seeing in her the one true essential thing, compared with which they acknowledged their differences to be as nothing. And aged paupers made verses in her honor after her death."

How did she do all this? She did it simply by the manifestation of the life that was in her, the trained, well-ordered life of doing her Father's business, so different from the governing, the ordering about, the driving principle. And everybody recognized it,— the paupers and the vestry, and the nurses and the Poor Law Board. All the last winter of her life she had under her charge above 50 nurses and probationers, above 150 pauper scourers, from 1,290 to 1,350 patients, being from two to three hundred more than the number of beds. All this she had to provide for and arrange for, often receiving an influx of patients without a moment's warning. She had to manage and persuade the patients to sleep three and four in two beds. Sometimes six or even eight children had to be put in one bed. . . . Among her patients were worn-out old prostitutes, worn-out old thieves, worn-out old drunkards.

Part of her work was to see that the dissolute and desperate old sinners did not corrupt the younger women,— fallen, but not hopeless,

— to see that the patients did not quarrel and fight and steal from one another. These were among the every-day incidents of her work-house life. "And," says Florence Nightingale, "if any one would know what are the lowest depths of human vice and misery, would see the festering mass of decay of living human bodies and human souls, and then would try what one loving soul filled with the spirit of her God can do to let in the light of God into this hideous well, to bind up the wounds, to heal the broken-hearted, to bring release to the captives,— let her study the ways and follow in the steps of this one young, frail woman who has died to show us the way,— blessed in her death as in her life."

If women of like character and training and thorough executive ability could be placed over our workhouses, asylums, prisons, and police stations, not many years would elapse before these desert places would "blossom as the rose."

5. What are the advantages to be gained by the establishment of National Training Schools for nurses?

1. One great advantage would be the greater permanence which belongs to government institutions, because of the surer and more generous means of support thus afforded. Experiments are expensive, and private institutions are rarely sufficiently well endowed to undertake the tremendous outlay involved in the various enterprises essential to the development of a new art.

2. National institutions, being longer-lived, insure more uniform methods of training. How frequently we hear the complaint from physicians that sending to a nurse-directory is like sending to a lottery,— you may get a good article or you may not!

3. Methods of instruction and discipline as they now exist in the different schools vary so much that we can never be sure that the "trained nurse" is always of uniform excellence. Were one thorough system of training followed, and were it kept under the constant supervision of duly appointed and thoroughly competent government officers, such uniformity could be better attained, and the advance of nursing as a science insured.

4. In times of public calamity, an able body of workers would then be ever at command to aid in the bestowal of a nation's charity; while in times of prosperity no less important an end would be served by their assistance in its works of reform.

TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR NURSES.

BY ISABEL I. HAMPTON, JOHNS HOPKINS HOSPITAL, BALTIMORE.

With the rapid development of medical science during the past thirty years, and the movement toward organized charity, with its advanced thoughts and theories, the question naturally came about, How best could the system of caring for those who were suffering and sick, both at home and in institutions, be improved, and especially in the so-called hospital, that had justly come to be looked upon as a parody upon the name, and a place to be feared and shunned by the most forlorn and destitute, and it could well be said of them "whoso enters here leaves hope behind"?

The present solution of the problem first came to England as the best and only humane result of the Crimean War. Already in Germany some hospitals had the good fortune to be under the care of a religious order known as Deaconesses. In one such sisterhood an English woman and philanthropist spent some time working among the sick, that she might learn how better to perform her work of doing good at home. And the knowledge thus gained proved to be of infinite value,— in the first instance to her own stricken countrymen, and latterly to the sick in many countries. The story of the splendid work done by Florence Nightingale and her staff of nurses in the Crimea is now a matter of history and known to all, as well as her subsequent founding, in St. Thomas Hospital, London, the first training school for nurses, its especial object being to teach laywomen the art of caring for the sick.

It was not until some eighteen years later that the same question effectually agitated the minds of philanthropists in America; and to the women of the State Charities Aid Association, just then founded in New York City, is due the organization of schools for nurses in America. Adopting in a great measure the principles set forth by the Nightingale School, they selected as their field of labor old Bellevue Hospital, that was as famous for its large death record as it was in the medical world for its clinical advantages, and petitioned the Commissioners of Public Charities and Corrections for permission to care for some of its wards. These early efforts encountered

many difficulties, chiefly political and financial. The hospital being in the hands of politicians, these gentlemen were not likely to view with any degree of favor a plan that would tend to decrease their power or influence; and only by the aid of influential men, out of politics, was the entering wedge effected. And, singularly enough, but few of the leading physicians favored the scheme; and many hindered instead of helped its progress, although there was little in the old style of nursing to command their loyalty, and there was many a doubting one among them whom it required years of steady, faithful work on the part of the nurses to convince that trained nurses were only striving to be trusty helpmates in the service of the sick, under the physician's superior guidance and command. The maintenance of the school was also a serious difficulty, as the income derived from the hospital was insufficient to meet the outlay, and the only other source was from private subscriptions.

As a result and evidence of the success of these early efforts, we find to-day, seventeen years later, similar schools established in connection with all the prominent hospitals in the country, and in many of the lesser ones. People are not always willing to accept a better order of affairs, even after the good in it has been demonstrated beyond question, if they personally have to make any sacrifice. This is especially true of politicians; and, if there is one evil to be regretted more than another, it is that so many of the public institutions are at the mercy and in the hands of politicians. It is not generally the aim of the politically appointed commissioners that the most skilled among medical men should be appointed on the hospital medical staffs, that the various hospital offices should be filled by men specially qualified for the work, or that measures be adopted introducing a higher order of affairs that would in any way limit their political power or by additional expense interfere with their record for apparent economy. And they are well content to keep on in the old rut, if outside influence is not sufficient to compel some improvements. We had an example of this only this spring in the Milwaukee County Hospital. Something over a year ago a committee of ladies formed, and, after much time, thought, and money spent, succeeded in establishing a school for nurses in the County Hospital at Wauwatosa. It was far from perfect, but certainly an improvement upon the former method. But the superintendent, whose appointment is political, opposed strongly from the first the introduction of trained nurses and the better tone insisted upon by them in

the hospital; and so discouraging was the struggle that the committee, after almost two years' work, was obliged to withdraw its staff of nurses, and now the old régime is once more established.

The difficulties under which training schools labor, connected with political hospitals, can only be realized by the women who have to work in them. From the outset a second-rate standard of excellence must be accepted. Too often they are obliged to meet and work daily, not with medical men whom they can look up to and honor as leading men in their profession, but with men whose sole recommendation is that they are friends of politicians. The warden or superintendent in charge is usually a second-rate politician, who naturally cannot insist upon any higher standard from those who work with him; and the supplies for the patients' comfort and welfare are considered only from a standpoint of cheapness, that a record for economy may be established. The insecurity of their position also, changing with every change of commissioners, renders the attempt to do the best work most discouraging. This, alas! is the state of affairs existing in some of the largest hospitals in the country; and still the people go on blindly appointing such men, careless of the duty resting upon them to give their sick poor such assistance as they would have given unto themselves. This is a condition that cannot be dwelt upon too earnestly.

Although schools for nurses are no longer novelties, their objects and methods seem comparatively little understood; and even those who fancy they are well versed in them fail sometimes to appreciate their true position. The objects attained by them thus far are threefold. They, first, provide, for hospital purposes, a staff of selected women, who are educated to intelligently, carefully, and faithfully carry out the instructions of the physicians and minister to the comfort of the sick in the many ways that can only be acquired by daily practice. Their second object is attained by making this same trained skill available to families; and a field of usefulness is thus created for women that is essentially womanly, and has made nursing attractive to women of education and refinement by raising it to the dignity of a profession.

The course of instruction for pupil nurses usually adopted by well-systematized schools extends over two years. The question is many times asked, and not infrequently by physicians not familiar with the extent of nurses' work in hospitals, Do these student-nurses do much of the practical nursing in the wards, aside from classes and lectures,

during these two years? The fact is that, under the guidance and teaching of women who are already familiar with the work, they do all the nursing, without regard to sex, color, or nationality. That this can be done with the utmost propriety by gentle and refined women is also a question that puzzles many minds, and it is simply because these qualities prevail that make it possible. A woman who carries with her gentleness and courtesy and loving kindness may have a ward of men under her care, where the impress of the world, the flesh, and the devil may be seen stamped upon many a sufferer's face; and she may work among them day after day or night after night, as the case may be, performing the offices that a weakened condition demands from the strong, and she will in return receive nothing but manly courtesy, and, if not polished, many grateful looks and words, and willing attempts to aid, if need be. And it is rare when a feeling of kindliness and good fellowship is not established between nurse and patient. And it is just here that trained nurses should join hands the more closely with such organizations as the present. In the large hospitals of such cities as New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago, it is not of unfrequent occurrence to receive a poor fellow with the pitiful history of no home, no friends, and no means. It is quite likely that his own recklessness has brought him to this condition of dependence. The kindliness of the physicians, the attention of the nurses, and the tendency to a better way of thinking that sometimes comes with sickness, all have their influence; and, during the long, quiet hours of convalescence, an opportunity is afforded to foster a desire to go out and do differently and be something better. The nurse's opportunities for knowing all this are even more than the physician's; and, as she nurses him back to health, the thought comes to her over and over again, How best can this man be helped when the hospital's obligations to him are fulfilled, where can he go when he leaves here, who is there to keep him from his old haunts and willing to help him to the small amount of work that his returning health will permit him to accomplish? Seldom, unaided, can he meet with success; for his appearance, clothes, and often character are against him, and why wonder that he becomes once more, it may be, a law-breaker? What kindness is there in nursing back to life any one in such a condition, if we stop there? Should not or could not the cure be taken up by such associations as the present in a systematic way, and so be united with physicians and nurses in the attempt to make such lives worth living?

In the medical colleges of the country, the course of study set forth in the curriculum covers three years. This instruction is chiefly scientific and theoretical, with but small practical experience. At the end of this time, the degree of M.D. is conferred upon the student; and he then either enters upon the practice of medicine or a hospital for the beginning of his practical experience. On the other hand, the nurse's two years' course is chiefly practical, with sufficient theoretical teaching to make her work intelligible to her. Then she, too, graduates from her school, without any special degree conferred, but is known as a graduate trained nurse. She is at liberty to choose her field of labor, whether in hospitals or families. The majority enter upon private practice, and some few find hospital work more congenial. The public is slow to recognize the true position of the trained nurse; and the impression is far from being eradicated that she is simply the same style as the nurse of tradition, with the addition of understanding her duties better. Hence it is that friction and adverse criticism sometimes come. That her presence is needed in a family where there is a severe illness is unquestionable. To quote from a physician who comes daily in contact with nurses, he says: "The hands of a nurse are the physician's hands *lengthened out* to minister to the sick. Her presence at the bedside is a trained vigilance, supplementing and perfecting his watchful care; her knowledge of the patient's condition, an essential element in the diagnosis of disease; her management of the patient, the practical side of medical science. If she fails to appreciate her duties, the physician fails in the same degree to bring aid to his patient." This is why she has spent two of the best years of her life in fitting herself to begin her work. This is her real purpose in being there. She is the physician's aide-de-camp.

While the constant presence of a stranger in the family is not usually agreeable, still, if she skilfully performs the work she is there for, is not the temporary inconvenience worth while? And when convalescence sets in and the work is not so arduous, but her presence still a necessity, should she be required to assist with the family sewing, do errands, or act the part of a maid, any more than it would be required of the physician? There are circumstances under which it would be necessary: then it is her positive duty. And that brings us to consider a field of nursing that is but slightly developed in America, and that touches upon one of the leading social questions of the day, and should bring the work of a nurse in more direct con-

tact with charitable associations than even her hospital work. District nursing among the sick poor in their homes is a branch of nursing that is only in its infancy in this country, but is a most important kind,— in fact, it may be said the most important kind that can be done; for, if rightly done, it will in time tend to decrease not only the numbers in our hospitals, but as well the population of reformatories and prisons. For it means an education to the people in the laws of health, in ventilation, cleanliness, the value of light, and in understanding practically the meaning of that most beautiful of all commandments, "Love ye one another even as I have loved you."

The wives and mothers are really the home-makers; and only from women to women can it best be taught that upon them especially devolve the comfort and happiness of the family, that the means to preserve health should be one of her especial duties, and that to go through life a weary, broken-down, struggling woman, with a host of children that cannot be provided for, is not a condition of affairs sent by Providence.

It is getting to the root of the matter and a beginning to the solution of the great problem, What is to be done with the lower social conditions of life? when men and women who, by accident of birth and circumstances, are in a higher social standing, are willing to carry their work and lives in a simple, unostentatious way into daily contact with these less fortunate ones, and by example and influence help to a better condition. And doctors and nurses in district work have unequalled opportunities. In Boston especially is this branch of nursing most thoroughly and systematically carried out by an organization which is known as the Instructive District Nursing Association. It was begun about three years ago, and about the same time in Philadelphia. In New York, it is of longer standing; and Chicago commenced within the year. But funds are not sufficient to do very extensive work; and not any of these cities commands a staff of more than six or eight nurses, and the average number is about five.

If time would permit, it would be of interest to read some extracts from the various reports that show conclusively how instructive this nursing is. But exceptional women and training are required. In England, where district nursing is done extensively, the utmost precautions are taken in the selection of the nurses, and especial emphasis is laid upon the requirements that they should be gentlewomen, skilled in nursing, with infinite tact, discretion, and good breeding,

that they may successfully introduce sanitary reforms, and effect this without hurting the feelings of those who are to benefit by the change. We could not but wish for such qualities in each woman who calls herself a trained nurse; and we freely admit that there is much about this system of nursing that could be improved upon, and that it is far from being a perfect system. The two years' course of training has its disadvantages. Each year a class graduates, and a new one forms. The number on the staff must be kept up and often increased; and, while there are usually many applicants, there is not always a sufficient number of desirable ones to fill the vacancies. Therefore, one or more not so good must be accepted. Then the same standard of excellence is not demanded by every school, there is no organization, no special communication kept up between schools, each one works on its individual plans, no general rules are adopted by all. As an instance, the superintendent of one school may consider a candidate unqualified for the duties of a nurse, and another superintendent will receive the rejected candidate into her school. Then the establishing of schools in connection with very small or specialty hospitals is a serious drawback, for it is impossible to get sufficiently refined and educated women to spend their time acquiring such limited experience. Therefore, women who would be considered totally unfit by a large general school are taken, and after a few months' time they are launched upon the public as trained nurses. No discrimination is exercised, and one such nurse may bring down severe criticism upon all others. That this criticism is often too true when made upon women who ought to do better, and really know better, is to be greatly regretted; but it is also true that there are hundreds of women to-day performing their work faithfully and well, striving toward a high standard for nurses. Nor do we feel discouraged when we know that the women who will study nursing for its value, the love of knowledge, and the good they can do by it, are ever on the increase.

In response to the honor done our work in being asked to be represented in such an important Conference, this very inadequate sketch of what is being done in the nursing world has been prepared.

We further beg to add the assurance of the co-operation of trained nurses in any way in their power that will tend to lessen suffering.

A BUREAU OF INFORMATION.

THE NEED OF A POST-GRADUATE SCHOOL FOR NURSES.

BY CHARLOTTE B. BROWN, M.D.

Seventeen years ago, when Bellevue Training School opened, the ignorance of the public as to the work, as well as physicians and the managers undertaking it, was the most serious drawback the school encountered; and it was only by continued education of all parties, gained from their experience, that success finally crowned the effort. Just such obstacles are met in the opening of each new school. The same arguments have to be modified for each community; and five years or more are virtually wasted, or spent in needless wear and tear, because from no source can experience be bought or acquired on countless subjects germane to the question.

Milwaukee at this time is suffering these trials, ignorance of city officials having caused the removal of its Training School from the City and County Hospital, even after two years of good work. A case in point to show how otherwise intelligent physicians may view the matter. In the early days of the San Francisco Training School, a leading physician was invited to give a lecture to the nurses, and permitted to choose his subject. He gave a desultory talk on nursing in general, a few suggestions for special cases, told some good stories, and after half an hour turned to the physicians connected with the school, and said: "I confess I have told these young ladies all I know about nursing. I do not comprehend how you can find subjects to keep them two years, for I do not know anything more to teach them." He lived long enough to learn the meaning of the trained nurse. Such instances might be many times multiplied in the neighborhood of each school.

One question in this day is universally ceded, and that is the need of educated nurses as distinguished from "professionals." There is, too, no longer lack of bright, intelligent young women offering themselves to be trained. Let us, then, consider how a Bureau of Information would be of use to the country.

A uniform standard of education is needed. The nurse must be admitted on a universal mental, moral, and physical standard. Her

age should be the same in all schools. At present the pupils are admitted between sixteen and forty years, in the different schools of the land. This does not accord with the spirit of the work. A nurse should have arrived at years of discretion and mature health before her judgment and strength are suited to such an undertaking. Her education should be as great as possible,—quite as much as the completion of the grammar schools. This training school is in no way to be considered a seminary for pleasure and pastime, where one can carry on extensive correspondence, enjoy many social pleasures, and later on marry. Without question the broad training of a nurse is one of the best preparations for wives and mothers, and far be it from me to seek for any woman a higher vocation than the natural one. But, while training schools are opened without expense to the pupils, a proper *esprit de corps* should make it incumbent on each graduate to spend a year or two in active practice before abandoning her profession. In general, it is not the plan of such schools to enter on a preparation for other than the profession of nursing.

The age, then, that is found best, is twenty-two to twenty-four years for entrance; and the active life of a nurse in private work should end at about forty-five years. After that, unless she has established for herself a home, she will find in kindred work large fields of usefulness. Matrons, resident nurses in all kinds of institutions, nurses for the superintendence of young children in families of wealth, etc., etc., should be found among these women who have now mature minds, intelligent and cultivated bearing, and strict integrity, and yet ought no longer to tax themselves with the cares and anxieties of general nursing.

Physical examinations should be uniform on the entrance of pupils, and quite as careful as those required by insurance companies. Length of the course of training should be never less than two years. Certain schools offer only a course in a specialty. This is accepted by nurses who prefer, they say, some branch to a general practice; but it is apparent that it is wrong, for thorough knowledge of all branches is as important in nursing as it is in medicine, in order intelligently to understand a part.

The Western schools have found a guarantee fund, on entrance, a necessity. Those who have not the money, $30 to $50, to deposit, are required to leave a certain amount of each month's salary till that amount is reached. This money is returned at graduation, but forfeited unless the course is completed. It is found of value in bringing

us more desirable women and in preventing fickleness: otherwise, marriage or illness in their families often spoils a good nurse.

The discipline, too, should be most just and uniform. Careful investigation before entrance, and a registration of credentials, are of greatest importance. These women are to enter the homes of the land, and to exert an influence unbounded, and must be of the highest morality. It should be found very difficult for a nurse dismissed from one school to enter any other.

A plan should be offered by the bureau for operation in a large general hospital, such as the public hospital of every city; and also the best plan for operating small hospitals; or a training school carried on in connection with a hospital for specialties. Often, owing to the smaller number of nurses in such schools and the greater personality in the training, as good or better advantages are gained. A centre for such a school — and its nurses supplied to each of the hospitals of a city, for three months under the surveillance of a senior nurse, after a year's training in the school — is offered for consideration of such a bureau. It would be important that such schools should very clearly express the manner in which such training would be given, and hearty co-operation of the boards of managers of each hospital would be needed.

Private nursing, while still in the hospital, is almost universal as part of the education of nurses, and deservedly so, but should be confined to second-year students, and each pupil should spend the last two or three months of her second year in the hospital, as it should be her privilege to lend her training and enthusiasm to entering pupils.

It is very desirable that entrances and graduations should be at regular times in the year,— say four periods for entrance and two periods for final examinations.

There are certain obligations of the school to the nurse: 1st, a nurses' home; 2d, superintendent; 3d, loyalty, mutual loyalty, during pupilage to the school, and from the school to the pupil after graduation; 4th, household economy; 5th, business training; 6th, district nursing.

It should be made a requirement that no school should open its doors until it has a building where nurses shall eat, sleep, and have their recreation,— a home in the true sense. Thirty-three schools are recorded in Washington, not more than a fourth of which possess such homes. The hospital itself is not the place for twenty-five or

thirty healthy women to eat and sleep. It is not surprising that at the end of a few months a girl begins to break down in health. The ordinary table at the hospital lacks the appetizing qualities which such work demands. No fault with the food or cooking, but having served it to the patients in the ward, it takes great courage for a pupil to preserve long a good appetite at the regular hospital table.

The sleep of night nurses cannot be replaced by rest obtained in the hospital during the day. Ceaseless walking in the halls renders it anything but a substitute for the quiet of the night. There should be, during certain hours of each day relaxation from all strain, some time and place where they can sing, laugh, sew, talk, play tennis, without disturbing any one. Such a place must be outside the hospital building. As to the luxury of such a place, it should be very comfortable, not more than two nurses in each bedroom, the sitting-rooms furnished with books, pictures, and musical instruments. Nurses who have graduated should find themselves welcomed, at times. Evenings "at home" now and then, and entertainments at which some of the social leaders of the city appeared, would do more to place nurses in the position they should occupy than any one thing.

The true social standing of the nurse is not yet defined. In some large boarding-houses a nurse cannot come to the table. The servants' dining-room is the only place provided. The better class of nurses refuse to go to boarding-houses. A trained nurse is a lady. If she is not, she should not be a trained nurse. Pupils enter the school with an enthusiasm of which the public scarcely conceive. I have never seen it equalled. Their patience and perseverance, especially in the new and struggling schools, is greatly to be commended. Such women surely need our best efforts in their education.

Superintendent of Nurses.— Many think a training school can exist without one. They do, and build up a reputation for splendid nurses, owing to the untiring labor of the physicians in charge; but it is a bad way to treat the doctors. The duties of the superintendent are manifold; and the success of the school is largely due to the personal influence each nurse receives from one who is thoroughly in sympathy with her, and understands the work. Much of the detail of lessons falls to the superintendent; but, while she oversees the nursing in the wards, she does this as much as possible by her senior nurses, who are in charge of each department, having several junior nurses under them. Thus she is training each nurse in the line of higher work. But, while all learn to manage well individual cases, only a few are

found worthy to commend. Superintendents fitted for the work are very scarce. In San Francisco we secured one after extensive search and long waiting by taking one from an Eastern hospital, and they were some months in replacing her.

Loyalty implies what is meant, and needs but little elaboration. Women in this profession need the moral support of those who have known them well, for many reasons. It is, alas! not uncommon that a nurse is maligned by parties for whom she has faithfully worked, to avoid the payment of her bill. A nurse standing alone would prefer to lose her pay rather than collect it by law. Her good name, professionally, is all she has; and dragged through the papers and courts does not improve it, even if innocent. The backing of the school prevents such evils. Then, too, the friendship of its graduates helps the prosperity of the school.

Household Economy.— Political economy is a recognized subject of education: why not household economy? The nurse should be trained thoroughly in the detail of the household unless this has been done in her preliminary education. Too much time should not be spent on anatomy. She is, in her life-work, continually to be a teacher. Each home she enters will be her school-room, and she must be a broad woman. The ideal nurse grows mentally every year after graduation. There are many arguments in favor of employing trained nurses as matrons for every general hospital and indeed public institutions. If so, her training for such work should go hand in hand with her care of the sick. Too much attention cannot be given the subject of foods, their uses and preparation, which necessitates thorough knowledge of the kitchen department. Her influence on the community is greater than a physician can attain, even though in many points it would seem natural to come from the doctor; yet the nurse's word is autocratic in the families who know and employ her.

That this influence may be wise, she must be wisely trained. She should be well read, have power to select reading wisely, especially in her care of convalescents, which care is often the mark by which to determine the best nurse. A reading club in the nurses' home is a very important training. The possibilities of the work each nurse may meet in her future should never be forgotten; and every point which will lay a good foundation should be furnished by the school. All subjects in sociology which relate to humanity and nursing should be taught by lectures from doctors, lawyers, or other educated persons; for everything which elevates the mind is of use to the nurse.

Some of these nurses will always be nurses: others will find other life-work. Just as the study of medicine has been the stepping-stone for many scientists, so the study of nursing may be the opening to some grander work in charities and corrections.

Business training is neglected in most women, and suggestions in this line ought to be made during pupilage to nurses; for they are giving up their capital of health and strength, and ought to learn to accumulate money for old age. Wise investments of small earnings is a subject on which friends of these schools, or better still the bureau, would do well to instruct its pupils.

On graduation, each nurse should find or make for herself a home permanently. This profession, like medicine, is not designed for "rolling stones."

There are many reasons why several graduates should live in the same house,— notably, ease of access by the patrons and mutual help. Nurses are not mercenary. I do not recall an instance where a graduate nurse would not *give* her services, however arduous, to save the life of a free patient; but I have been surprised to see how frequently a nurse who has made from $600 to $1,000 a year has, after a few years, laid by nothing. The sympathy of her nature seems the cause. She never spends it on herself, but cases appeal to her where it seems as though the loan of some money would help them to help themselves; but the loan is never returned, and it takes her years to gain this knowledge. When not at work, I have noticed that many nurses are restless; when busy, they are happy. Broader education in their training would, I think, prevent restlessness. When not nursing, they could visit institutions and individuals as friendly visitors with mutual benefit; and doubtless they would do so if directed by training in these works, as they would be, were district nursing a part of each school. Every nurse ought to give two months of her pupilage to district work. The best methods of doing this work: statistics and reports of what has been done should be carefully compiled for the bureau. That the field is wide and much labor to be done in this direction no one can question.

The expense of the training school should be a subject of information. It is generally believed that it pays its own expenses. Such is not the case, or should not be. Strict business accounts with the hospital should be kept from the opening of the school; and a general fund should be raised, so that the school would be no burden on the hospital. And, while private nursing for the pupils would

be a source of income to the school of considerable importance, yet that in no instance should be permitted except for second-year pupils up to the two months preceding graduation; no pupil nurse being sent out except for physicians heartily in sympathy with the true spirit of the school, so that each nurse in each case would find a continuous education. In other words, private nursing should be done by pupils to advertise the school, to teach the nurses, and not alone for the income from it. The question is asked whether nurses do not want to study medicine. No: they often on entering the training school say they are taking this course as a preparation for medical studies; but, when they are well trained as nurses, they realize the nobleness of their work, and are proud of their profession.

This bureau would be a means of interchange of thought between the schools, of suggestions, of new methods. All needed blanks (that is, new forms, etc.) would be issued and statistics obtained at the head centre. Perhaps such a bureau is only practicable as connected with the medical department at Washington, and doubtless many of the suggestions of this paper need modification; but the profession of nursing is yet in its infancy, and it has proved even so to be worthy to be raised. So that the time has come for the best methods of doing it.

A post-graduate school for the trained nurse is greatly needed. From among the graduates of a few years ago there are continual queries about the possibility of re-entering the training school to learn advances in surgical or special nursing, for we rejoice to know that ten years have recorded advance in every department of medicine and surgery. Then, with the sad lack of qualified superintendents of nurses, of thoroughly trained matrons for hospitals, orphanages, almshouses, and public institutions of all kinds, is there not need of a place where the right kind of training could be had? The best material is none too good for any institution. Every boarding-school in the land for boys or girls needs a resident trained nurse, even if as well a physician is employed; but, if its matron was one of these post-graduate trained nurses, her influence on the physical well-being of the pupils would be most satisfactory.

I have said that nurses should cease active nursing at about forty-five years. Those who, from especial fitness, robust health, an absence of family ties, or because of true love for the work, desired to enter such a school, would have so decided by thirty to thirty-five years of age,—have entered the school knowing just what specialty

they wished. I question whether it would not be well to charge tuition. A small price would be sufficient, requiring a most careful qualification of each candidate as well as best recommendations from persons qualified to judge of them. It would not be long before the whole country would offer abundance of first-class material for such a school.

A post-graduate school could only be opened in connection with a well-endowed training school, notably one like the Johns Hopkins or Bellevue or New York Hospital schools. But it is greatly to be hoped that the time is not distant when wealth will recognize the need of endowing not only the advanced schools, but that every training school for nurses in the land may be equipped so well, when first established, that its good work will promptly be felt to be a power in the community among rich and poor.

VII.

Hospitals.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON HOSPITALS.

BY HENRY M. HURD, M.D.

As chairman of the Committee on Hospitals, it is my pleasant duty to report a growing interest in many cities of the United States in hospital construction. This interest is shown by intelligent plans, furnished largely by experts, and an earnest effort to follow the best modes of construction. Good sites, floor-space, air-space, ventilation, heating, sewerage, drainage, and the thousand and one physical factors which combine to make healthful, efficient, and pleasant hospitals are now considered, when plans are made; and the result is a perfection of detail which leaves little or nothing to be desired. In New Haven, Conn., the intelligent liberality of a large-hearted gentleman has rendered it possible to reconstruct the New Haven Hospital, and to provide wards which are to be models of hygienic arrangement and convenience. The munificent bequest of a grateful patient is to give the Roosevelt Hospital in New York an operating amphitheatre which will probably excel anything of its kind in America and Europe. The operating room will be not only well arranged and properly equipped, but heavily endowed, so that the latest improvements in surgery and surgical appliances may be purchased without stint for all future time. The recent burning of a portion of the Presbyterian Hospital in the same city has rendered it possible to reconstruct one wing of it after the most approved plans. This work is now in active progress, to the great advantage of the hospital. In Brooklyn, the Methodist Episcopal Hospital, although partially occupied, not yet completed, promises to be one of the most complete of its class. It is constructed upon the pavilion plan, modified to suit certain exigencies, and is a very commodious structure. In Philadelphia, most extensive repairs and reconstructions are in progress at the University Hospital, under the direction

of Dr. John S. Billings, which promise to add immeasurably to its hygienic condition and to place it among the best in the city. At the Episcopal Hospital, an extensive pavilion is to be erected by the family of a gentleman who was once prominent in the work of the Pennsylvania Board of State Charities. In the Methodist Hospital, also, I learn that plans are preparing for additional buildings. In Baltimore, the past year has been marked by the completion and opening of the two hospitals * which you are to visit this afternoon, and which are regarded as models of their respective kinds. They have both entered upon a career of usefulness which is most gratifying to all connected with them. I bespeak for them your careful and critical inspection, when you visit them.

These, to be brief, are but samples of what is being done in many of the larger cities of America. Smaller towns, too, are not dilatory in the same direction, and many creditable hospitals are being established in towns and cities of less than twenty thousand inhabitants. The outlook for the future care of the sick poor is most encouraging. An interest has been awakened in this direction throughout the whole land, and the result must inevitably be a great advance in the standard of hospital care.

I now turn to the more especial topic of my brief paper, "The Relation of the General Hospital to the Medical Profession."

THE RELATION OF THE GENERAL HOSPITAL TO THE MEDICAL PROFESSION.

BY HENRY M. HURD, M.D.,

SUPERINTENDENT JOHNS HOPKINS HOSPITAL, BALTIMORE.

Hospital construction has received a mighty impetus during the past ten years, both in America and Europe; and it can hardly be anticipated that any material modification in the construction and arrangement of wards or the general plans of the buildings will be attempted for some time to come. A few minor details, like operating rooms or accommodations for the out-patient departments, may

* The Johns Hopkins Hospital and the Baltimore City Hospital.

be perfected; but the general plans of hospitals seem well settled and satisfactory to all persons who are specially interested.

Hospital organization and administration in their turn now engross, more and more, the attention of the medical profession. Upon these topics there is at present no unanimity of sentiment, and the hospital organization of the future has not yet become clearly outlined. Many vexed questions are still likely to arise; and the views of many men may differ widely as to what is best until a new system of hospital organization is gradually evolved, which, it is confidently expected, will eventually correspond with the present excellence of hospital construction.

The mission of the general hospital may be summarized to be (1) to furnish medical treatment and proper nursing to the sick poor, and especially to the homeless and friendless, (2) to furnish similar treatment to those who are able and willing to pay for it, and especially to those who are without families and homes, (3) to provide aseptic operating rooms where antiseptic surgery may be done with full confidence in its results,— this confidence being based upon the knowledge that all scientific requirements have been met by proper construction and thorough management,— (4) to provide instruction in and full demonstrations of the most approved methods of treatment of the sick to medical students and medical men, (5) to train capable, high-minded, self-sacrificing women as nurses, and (6) finally to advance medical study and increase medical knowledge.

It is evident that the old-time idea that the hospital is designed for the destitute and homeless alone must be materially modified to meet the present exigencies of modern life. Many persons in moderate circumstances live comfortably as long as they can labor and produce, but, when ill, can procure skilled medical attendance and proper nursing only at the cost of future debt and a weary struggle to pay the obligations incurred. The expenses of living are constantly increasing, and the competition of modern life is intense, so that the majority of laboring men, of necessity, spend their earnings as they receive them, with little prospect of laying up a reserve for the traditional "rainy day." Hence, whether it be considered a good policy or not, provision must be made to care for many of these wage-earners in public hospitals, in the event of long-continued or serious illness. The same is true of the more wealthy classes. Many of them cannot procure at home the constant medical care and the thorough nursing required, and certain portions of the public hospital must be set apart

for them. I believe, however, that private enterprise ought to come in here, as it has in the care of the insane, to provide well-equipped private hospitals for the well-to-do classes, where each patient can have the best hygienic surroundings, the most approved nursing, and the privilege of receiving attention from one's own physician. Such private hospitals have a recognized place, and would do much to supplement the work of public hospitals in providing for this class,— a work which from the nature of things must be now done under many disadvantages. Public hospitals are not arranged for the wealthy, and cannot be.

A necessity for increasing the scope of hospital provision has also arisen by reason of the introduction of antiseptic surgery. It is now generally agreed that certain forms of it can be done with certainty of the results in hospitals alone, where the conditions of operations can be controlled much more perfectly than in private houses. This has initiated the custom on the part of many even wealthy persons of going to public hospitals to have surgical operations done,— a custom which will surely grow, until all operations requiring antiseptic precautions will eventually be done in private or public hospitals. The tendency in this direction must be recognized by medical men, and eventually provided for by the erection of private hospitals with aseptic operating rooms, skilled and trained assistants, and the armamentarium of antiseptic surgery.

The duty also of using public hospitals for the instruction of medical students and the training of medical men in practical work is also generally recognized. All hospitals of any standing the world over are thus used, and many improvements in medicine, surgery, and gynæcology have been popularized through their agency. The ordinary method of appointing resident physicians and surgeons for limited terms of service, upon competitive examinations, has also been useful to a degree in stimulating medical students to make themselves proficient in their studies. It is, however, open to the objection that such limitation of service and the necessity of depriving the hospital of the services of one who has but recently become proficient, to make room for one who is confessedly unacquainted with hospital work, seriously cripples the efficiency of the hospital and throws unusual labors and responsibilities upon members of the visiting staff. The tendency at present seems to be toward longer terms of service, and in some institutions, in fact, toward a continuous service on the part of the visiting staff. Would it not be

equally advantageous to lengthen the terms of service of the resident staff, with the view of retaining men who display a special aptitude for certain branches of hospital work? In using a hospital to advance medical knowledge, it should never be forgotten for a single moment that the primary object of all hospital work is the care of the sick, and whatever promises to further this end should be fostered.

The training of nurses for the sick can be done better in a hospital than anywhere else, because of the greater variety of diseases which are found there, the better supervision of the nursing work, and the advantage of systematic training. If it is the duty of the hospital physician to bring surgical or medical aid to his patient, it is none the less the duty of the hospital authorities to supply good nurses to second his efforts. The same duty toward the entire community is equally urgent. In a general hospital alone can any large number of young women receive training for the care of all forms of disease. The community looks to hospitals to keep the supply of nurses good, and has a right to expect that persons who engage in nursing shall be thoroughly trained to meet every emergency which may arise. These training schools, whenever practicable, should be under the charge of hospitals, and not separated from them unless the hospitals are unfortunately under political control, when a separate organization becomes inevitable.

In order that the hospital may furnish teachers for the profession at large, it seems essential not to lose sight of the fact that men should be appointed on the staff because of their attainments and special fitness for hospital work. They should not receive appointments because they are of a certain political party or religious creed, nor because they represent a medical school, but because they are the best men for the positions. They should be so situated by reason of salary or other independent position that they can give their best energies to hospital and teaching work. Hospital work should take the first place in their daily duties, and all private practice should be subordinated to their public duties. If such be the case, it would seem wiser to appoint a hospital staff for continuous service, and to give the members of it exclusive control of their wards. It is sometimes urged that physicians generally be permitted to attend individual patients in hospitals, but this practice must destroy the efficiency of hospitals as places for the education of medical teachers. The medical and surgical work of the hospital should be a continuous one, with definite aims, similar traditions, and fixed purposes.

This can only be accomplished by a continuous service. I would go a step further than this, and say that the hospital physician or surgeon should not engage in private practice, but should devote himself wholly to his hospital, to consultations, and to the work of teaching. In many instances, the work of the hospital, in the minds of hospital physicians, is of secondary importance, because it brings honor rather than daily bread. This work should be paid for, so that the hospital can have the right to insist upon its proper precedence over all other work.

If I correctly interpret the present tendency of hospital organization, the hospital of the future will probably have paid heads of departments who will devote themselves exclusively to hospital and teaching work, and paid resident physicians who will devote years instead of months to routine hospital work. The hospital appointment will cease to be the reward of good examinations and high standing in the graduating class. Those persons alone will seek appointments who are willing to devote themselves to hospital work as a specialty in medical practice. In other words, hospital work will assume a recognized place as a medical career, and those who accept positions will forego the honors and emoluments of the general practitioner.

These foregoing statements, owing to the necessity of brevity, have been given baldly and in the merest outline. Let us now consider what should be the attitude of the hospital toward the medical profession; for it is evident that the organization indicated above tends to remove it, more and more, from the sympathy and co-operation of physicians. In what follows, I would be understood to refer to an ideal relation rather than to anything which has yet been attained. It may never be attained fully, but it should be striven for.

In all professions, when men come into keen competition with each other, misunderstandings are likely to arise. These are probably more common in the medical than in any other profession, because the practice of medicine calls forth the interest to a greater degree, and awakens the sympathies of the individual more deeply than any other form of professional duty. When the heart and head are warmly enlisted, motives are sometimes misconstrued and acts are misunderstood. Hence there is great necessity that mutual concession and forbearance should mark the relations of hospitals and hospital physicians to the profession of medicine at large. I am clearly of the opinion that hospital physicians should be extremely

scrupulous not to trench in any manner upon the rights of the general practitioner. Patients ought not to be admitted for treatment or operation without the fullest understanding with the physicians who have had them in charge. The hospital physician should always bear in mind the tender relation which exists between the family physician and his patient, and should do nothing to impair the confidence which exists between them. He should regard himself constantly in the light of a consultant, and should sacredly observe all the proprieties of this relation. The hospital should observe the strictest impartiality as between physicians. It should not favor one above another, but should give equal rights to all who may apply to it. Privileges should not be extended to one and denied to another. One person should not have the right to secure admission for his patients, while another is refused; but all should fare alike.

Hospital physicians ought not to come into competition with physicians unconnected with hospitals. They should receive sufficient salaries from the hospital to permit them to devote themselves to their hospital work. If they do any professional work outside of the hospital, it should be in the way of consultations. Their hospital connection ought not to give them superior advantages in the way of general practice, nor should hospital positions be used for private gain. The position should be held not as a stepping-stone to increased money-getting or for reputation merely, but as a means of teaching and advancing medical science.

Hospitals ought to extend every possible aid to members of the medical profession. The members of the profession living in the immediate vicinity of a hospital ought to have the freest access to lectures, clinics, hospital wards, operating rooms, and laboratories. The torch of knowledge should not only be lighted, but passed along from hand to hand. Hospital work has improved medical practice and rendered results possible which without hospitals would have been unattainable. The hospital offers high opportunities for observation, practical demonstrations, and study. It should be mindful of its duty, and impart knowledge to all who can profit by its instructions. It is equally the duty of the physician to co-operate in the work of the hospital. He should not hesitate to send patients to hospitals whenever it is for their best interest to enter one. It is not every patient who desires hospital care that requires it or would be benefited by it among the rich or poor. The physician ought to exercise a wise discrimination in sending such to hospitals as may be benefited there. Some diseases should always be treated in hospi-

tals, and some surgical operations should never be attempted anywhere else. Physicians owe it to themselves to do less unpaid work among the poor. No profession, and no class of men, do so much without hope of reward. The hospital and its out-patient department ought to relieve them of this unrequited toil. The physician owes it also to the hospital to inform it when its charity is misapplied. He has special means of information respecting patients, and should not hesitate to protest against indiscriminate charity and rank imposition. I have long thought that the scope of the general hospital should be much diminished by the erection of more special hospitals. Diseases of the eye and ear, diseases of the skin, genito-urinary diseases, tubercular disease of the lungs, diseases of women, diseases of children, and the like, should be taken out of general hospitals and receive treatment in especially arranged and specially organized hospitals. General hospitals should be devoted to cases of acute disease, to surgery, and to accidents. To gather together large numbers of patients suffering from acute and chronic affections is depressing to all classes, and injurious. Special forms of disease should be placed in special hospitals, under the care of skilled specialists.

It also seems to me unwise that any physician should receive an appointment upon the staff of more than a single hospital. Few medical men have sufficient strength or leisure to serve more than a single hospital efficiently; and it is not conducive to thorough medical work for any physician, however well equipped, to attempt more. An honorary appointment which brings no active duty is undoubtedly permissible, but nothing more. A physician who accepts more hospital work than he can do well stands in the way of some other medical man who might accomplish more good for the hospital and the community.

A word as to hospital fees, and I am done. All patients who resort to hospitals, except the destitute and abject poor, ought to pay something for hospital care. It should not be to any but the destitute an absolute charity. The rate which is paid need not be in any degree commensurate with the amount of service rendered. It should, however, be equitably fixed, so that the self-respect of the individual may be preserved. Charity given unnecessarily and indiscriminately is demoralizing. It begets thriftlessness and improvidence, and leads to pauperization. Hospital patients, whether rich or poor, ought not to pay fees to physicians or to any other persons connected with hospitals.

HOSPITAL MANAGEMENT.

BY DR. DAVID JUDKINS, CINCINNATI.

Hospitals have one common object in view,— a home for those who are sick or injured, where pain may find relief and disease be banished. For the sake of general outline, I will say there are three classes of these institutions: —

First.— Such as are created and governed by State and municipal laws, and supported by taxation.

Second.— Private,— all government and management vested in individual ownership.

Third.— Endowed, when those furnishing the means of support dictate government and management.

As I am limited in time, I shall say nothing in connection with the "private and endowed," but will confine myself to the first named; namely, "a hospital created and governed by State and municipal laws, and supported by taxation." With a view to proper management of such an institution, and thorough enforcement of good order and healthful discipline, I would adopt the following form of inside government. I assume here that the law-making power has provided for the selection of a board of trustees, defining their power and modes of appointment. If we have a hospital with five hundred beds, this would necessitate the employment of at least one hundred persons. I would divide this force into departments, and for the sake of description, thus: —

1. *Administrative.*— This would embrace the keeping of accounts, paying proper claims, issuing permits and discharges, making up reports, daily, monthly, annual, etc.; assistant superintendent, chief clerk, or other title in charge.

2. *Admission of Patients.*— This department would be in charge of a medical man, selected by the medical staff, residing in the house, with proper assistants,— duties defined.

3. *Nursing.*— This would have to be divided into two departments, male and female, and recommended by the medical staff.

4. *Machinery.*— Engines, dynamos, with their connections for supplying light and heat to the premises, laundry force, etc.: this would have to be in charge of a competent engineer, with proper subordinates.

5. *Matron.*— In charge of the general housekeeping, clothing, bedding, laundry, dining-rooms, etc.

6. *Cooking.*— Kitchen service in charge of a competent man, who should be in good health, cleanly in his person, and of good habits.

7. *Supplies.*— In charge of a competent man to superintend the reception of all purchases made for the institution; attend, when so directed by authority, to procuring said supplies; compare goods received with the written bill; report the same as correct or otherwise.

8. *Medical.*— Having general charge of the treatment of sick and injured persons and authority in all matters medical, having the selection of their president or chief, chosen from their own number.

A sufficient number of departments have been named to illustrate my line of thought in this connection. More could easily be added, but are not necessary in this paper.

The superintendent should be a man of good health, positive culture of mind, great discretion, pronounced executive ability, moral character without reproach. This man should be the head of the institution, which should have but one. He is in absolute control, responsible only to the board of trustees, who should make it a principle that all orders and instructions for management and discipline adopted by them should be issued and enforced by the superintendent. Let each department have a competent chief, chosen by the superintendent, to whom his subordinates are responsible and to whose orders they must be obedient. The head of each department is responsible to the superintendent, to whom he is required to make daily reports, giving account of his work in detail and signed by himself. This form or plan for work is, in some respects, not unlike military organization. A regiment, say, has eight companies. Each company has a captain, who reports the work of his company to his colonel. In the case before us, the superintendent is the commanding officer.

A feature of this form of work should be that each department is responsible only for the duties imposed upon them by authority and their faithful performance. To illustrate, A, in charge of one department, says to B, of another department, I am in trouble about one of my employees. He has violated a rule of the hospital, being found where he was not supposed to have access, and where he had no right to show himself. I have a kindly feeling toward him, and have not reported his disorder to the superintendent. I know the matter

will be talked over by those who have heard it, and I shall be blamed. You can help me by seeing the chief officer. You have influence with him, and can get me out of this trouble. B replies: I have the duties of my department defined, and am responsible for the work. Your duties have, no doubt, been made known to you. You accepted them, and assumed the responsibility. One department is not allowed to interfere with another. You had better go to the superintendent, and abide by his decision.

Under such organization, proper discipline can be enforced, and a large amount of trouble avoided.

The hospital I am now referring to is, of course, devoted to the care of such persons as are not in possession of means to take proper care of themselves in sickness or disability from injuries. In other words, they are the poor in "this world's goods," whom we have always with us. Legal enactment has created the home for this very class of persons. It is the gift of a generous people to the poor sick man, woman, or child, who becomes an inmate of its wards. In this connection, it becomes a matter of great importance in management that persons employed in service of the hospital be impressed with the fact that these sick and disabled ones have a *right* to be where they are, and must have intelligent and humane care. This is sometimes a difficult point to reach, but patient firmness on the part of authority will bring it about. You who are familiar with the history of public charities and their management fifty years ago can easily make a comparison, then and now, that will do your hearts good.

When a nurse or assistant is employed, he or she should be furnished with a copy of the rules governing the departments in which they have accepted service; and the chief of such work is expected to enforce the rules. I would speak here of the great value of properly trained nurses; but, in your programme, that is a theme for a special paper.

Proper means of keeping wards supplied with pure air, its mode of introduction, the removal of an impure atmosphere, made so by unavoidable surroundings, are a *sine qua non* in a place where a sick man can dwell with a hope of cure. The limits assigned me forbid anything beyond a reference to its absolute importance. In this connection, it gives me pleasure to refer you to the very able paper on "Hospital Construction and Organization," by Surgeon John S. Billings, U.S.A.

Hospital wards, dining-rooms, closets, etc., should be kept absolutely clean. Strong alkaline soap, abundantly mingled with clean water, applied with energy, is a powerful antiseptic. The bedding and clothing of all inmates should be frequently changed and kept scrupulously clean. To this end a thoroughly appointed laundry is indispensable.

One great feature in the management of such an institution is its economy. The best meats, vegetables, fruits, and milk should be secured for the sick. Thus a healthful nutrition results, which is a great promoter of cure in disease. This course shortens the time of stay in the hospital.

The writer is familiar with the history of a hospital in which thirty years since the average time of patients in the wards was *ninety* days. At this time of writing the same institution shows (officially) an average to each patient of *thirty* days. Under the old régime, cheap food was sought,— necks and shanks of beef and mutton stale; and often sour or mouldy bread was supplied by an outside baker, and this line of furnishing food carried out in butter, milk, vegetables, etc. The more modern and intelligent handling of the same hospital secures the best of meats, bakes its own bread daily, secures good fresh butter, vegetables, milk, and fruit. As a result of this common-sense change in the bill of fare, sixty days of time in the residence of patients in the wards is secured. This is not all. The sick man or woman is kindly cared for while in the hospital, he has sixty days less pain to bear, is just that much the sooner restored to the duties of life, and the interests of the tax-payer are subserved in the saving of money.

The cooking department (kitchen) is a big factor in the management of a home for sick men and women. Here there should be a man in charge, intelligent in the preparation of food, of good health, cleanly in his person and habits, knowing the difference between a soup properly prepared and a mass of watery slop, the result of boiling water and a soup-bone in contact with each other for an hour. A true economy must be exercised here. Cleanliness of a positive kind must obtain. "Scraps," as they are called, of meat, from which hash is made,— a most nutritious food,— bread that may be utilized for puddings, griddle-cakes, etc.,— a little intelligent watchfulness here saves food and thus saves money. In addition to the general kitchen, there should be in connection with the various sick-wards special kitchens provided with gas-stoves for

quick use in preparing and heating food; in special cases, beef essence.

Such an institution would of course have a thoroughly organized medical department for two purposes: first, that the sick man and woman admitted to its shelter and privileges may have the best medical and surgical treatment; and, second, that the large and varied forms of disease presented may be made available for clinical teaching. This department would consist of a medical staff, made up of physicians and surgeons, obstetricians and pathologists. These should be selected by the trustees from the best material, men of pronounced ability in their profession, of high moral tone.

In addition to these there should be curators, young men of good character, known as industrious workers, their duty to make or assist in making *post-mortem* examinations, preserving morbid specimens, preparing and mounting them for place in the pathological museum. Such an institution would need a body of young men having recently completed their medical college work in an institution known as first class, where the course of study is acknowledged to be of the highest order. Such would be known as "Internes." Having passed honorably a competitive examination by the staff, they would reside in the hospital, attend the services of the staff on duty, keep the clinical records, and perform such other duties (medical) as their seniors should require of them. These, as well as all other appointments to place, should be submitted to the board of trustees for their approval, whose officer in charge is the superintendent, to whom all matters affecting the discipline and order of the hospital should be reported.

All nurses are expected to obey the orders of the medical officers in charge of the sick, and be careful to give them all the information in their power as to anything they may have noticed among the sick during the time elapsing between visits to the ward. They must feel the importance of their work, in having a large number of sick men, women, and children committed to their care. They must see that quiet and order are preserved in the ward. The sick are often irritable and exacting. Those who care for them should keep a cheerful manner, and manifest their knowledge of the law of kindness.

In admitting persons to the house, the medical officer in charge is expected to exercise intelligent care in placing the proposed inmate. If contagious disease be present, or if the history of the person arouses suspicion in this connection, such should not be taken to a

general ward, but isolated. All modern homes for the sick are provided with bathing-rooms and proper attendants: clothing is changed and the person made clean before being sent to the ward or room. In the examination of the person applying for admission, the medical officer should exercise patient intelligence. He or she may be dull, listless, stupid, and summarily dismissed as "No Case," or the too common verdict, "Drunkenness"; and, while such is often the true state of the case, there may be other causes acting, — injury to the head, concealed by a crop of thick hair; a recent illness, perhaps neglected; disease of the heart or other great organ. Instances are known of the death of persons who have been refused admission; and, while I am willing to admit that even in skilled hands a serious lesion may escape attention, it is the safer side not to do harm. Let the person applying for admission be placed in a waiting-room under proper watchfulness, and wait for development and subsequent examination.

The proper management of a home for invalids forbids indiscriminate visiting. Great injury to the sick is done in this way. Most of the public hospitals of our country have what are called "visiting days." On such occasions all who come are admitted. It would sometimes seem as if the gaping idler and that person known as the curious crank had been saving themselves for this event. A large number of such visitors seem to be persons who have on hand a great amount of unoccupied time, and are only seeking opportunity to gratify itching curiosity. Such can only do harm in the sick-room. This statement does not refer to the relatives or intimate friends of the ailing inmates of the hospital. Such should be permitted at proper times to visit those in whom they are interested.

Another outrage upon the order and quiet of the sick-room that should be frowned upon by authority is the oft-repeated visitations of so-called professors of religion, unduly enthusiastic, and often presuming in manner, over-garrulous in speech, and often manifesting to the observer a self-righteousness,— people "wise in their own conceit." Such do not represent the manner and speech of Him "who went about doing good." The visits of godly men and women do good whenever they are thus brought into contact with pain and trouble. Such should be welcome.

So far as the introduction of sectarianism in any of its forms into such an institution is concerned, it should not be permitted.

In the selection of those who are to be in authority as trustees, partisan politics should not be allowed to come into consideration by the appointing power. And a like policy should govern the board in choosing subordinates for the work of the hospital. The character and competency of the parties should be their indorsements.

ADVANTAGES OF HOSPITAL TREATMENT, WITH A PLAN OF CONSTRUCTION FOR NATURAL VENTILATION.

BY J. McFADDEN GASTON, M.D.,

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The treatment of medical or surgical patients in private quarters may, under some conditions, be advisable, and more especially when the separation of the individual from family associations may be attended with mental perturbation. But, when all the elements are considered which enter into the care of medical and surgical cases, it is evident that the appliances of a hospital are best calculated to secure the best results in their treatment.

A well-equipped hospital should not only have all the surroundings in the location and extension of grounds consistent with hygienic laws, but should be removed from the thoroughfares of a city, so as to secure quiet and composure to the inmates.

One of the most vexatious features in the management of cases in their homes is the interruption by visitors, who manifest their interest in the welfare of the patients by inquiries as to all the details of their sufferings, and recount everything of a similar nature within their knowledge. These narrations are often interspersed with marvellous cures which have been effected in like cases by certain physicians of their acquaintance, hinting incidentally that, if the said doctor had been called, it would have been better for the patient, or that he might still be summoned, with a prospect of a more rapid cure than the attendant was likely to effect.

The overweening anxiety of such friends does not end with these general reflections upon the professional management of the case; but the diet and nursing of the patient are discussed, with the utmost solicitude for having their individual views adopted.

All in all, the sufferer is worried from hour to hour and from day to day by the visits of persons against whom the door cannot be closed, and yet who have no special claim to consideration.

In a private dwelling, the courtesies of life are such that the restraints of the sick-room cannot be enforced as in a hospital; and, all things being considered in connection with the welfare of the patient, the advantages of regimen and nursing found in the hospital preponderate over any benefits received in private apartments.

I would not be understood as defending the aggregation of large numbers of patients in a public institution, however methodic may be its régime. On the contrary, any considerable accumulation of surgical cases in a single building, however well ventilated, is not conducive to the best result in their treatment. This holds especially in gynæcological surgery and in the maternity hospital accommodations, as the complete separation of the patients is desirable.

So far as it is practicable, the comforts of a home should be combined with the safeguards of an infirmary in providing for either medical or surgical cases; and, while the pavilion is an improvement upon the general hospital, no plan is so effectual as that of separate provision in cottages.

I avail myself of the "Reference Hand-book," in which Cowles, being a practical writer on this subject, states that "the recent improvements in hospital construction are in the direction of entirely separating pavilions, and making them of only one story. Hence there is a tendency to rely upon the simpler means of natural ventilation."

If the buildings can be so simplified as to dispense with artificial means of ventilation, a great vantage will be gained in the plans for such an establishment. But the complicated structures which are presented in many countries for the reception of sick and wounded require most elaborate apparatus to renew the air in all the different apartments. The heating and ventilating arrangements in some of the large hospitals of the world are most elaborate; and yet, by taking advantage of the principles of natural ventilation, we are informed that hospitals for the insane, nurses' homes, etc., are amply provided with air from well-warmed halls or corridors by transoms over the doors. Heating and ventilating are effected upon the same principle, by the introduction of warm air through or near the inner walls of an apartment, as in the Antwerp Hospital, the air being forced into the ward through openings near the ceiling in the centre

of a circular ward. To facilitate the renovating process, it is requisite to have openings at the bottom and at the top of the room. In the small but unique Cambridge Hospital, the sun-room is so arranged that there is a row of ventilating openings for the escape of the air heated by the sun, thus forcing ventilation.

Any impression of the currents of air which is perceptible to occupants of a room is objectionable; and hence what is called a draught of air should be avoided in the entrance and outlet of the atmosphere by the ventilating process. The change of air may be effected so as to allow the supply which is requisite for proper respiration, which, according to De Charemont, should not be less than 4,000 cubic feet per hour for each individual.

Of course, the impurity resulting from the exhalation of carbonic acid gas, in the act of respiration, should be corrected by a renewal of the atmosphere in any apartment which is constantly occupied. It is held that, when it reaches 6 or 7 parts in 10,000, there is an odor of impurity which is perceptible to a person entering the room, and that, to avoid this, the air-supply should be 3,000 feet per hour to each person.

The embodiment of the details for ventilation and heating, with most of the other requisites for a complete adaptation to the wants of the afflicted, are found in the Miller Memorial Cottage Hospital at Greenwich, England.

It has circular wards, in the centre of which are three open fireplaces, fitted with grates which permit the fresh air from without to pass up behind them. Becoming warmed by the heat of the fire, it enters the ward through a grating at the top of the stove.

The highest type of excellence in all that pertains to hospital construction is presented by our own Johns Hopkins Hospital of this city, and its details should be studied by all who are interested in this matter.

The basement has a height of 11 feet 6 inches under the wards, and 9 feet under other portions of the structure; and the pavilion floor is 13 feet above the level of the earth. The construction of the wards is similar in the two-story pavilions of this establishment.

A stairway from the corridor gives a separate entrance to the upper ward.

The size of the one-story sick-ward of this hospital is 90 feet 10 inches long, 27 feet 8 inches wide, and 16 feet in height. Each bed has a space of 7 feet 7 inches running along the wall, 104 feet of floor area, and 1,675 feet of air-space.

The octagon pavilion of the Johns Hopkins Hospital has two stories, and twenty-four beds in each ward, with their heads at the outer walls. In the centre of the ward an aspirating chimney promotes ventilation.

The necessity of isolating wards for male and female patients has been adequately met by a one-story brick structure with double walls 20 feet high. A hall 8 feet wide and 24 feet high runs through it; and it is covered by a monitor roof, with windows opening inward. It is warmed by fresh air passing over steam radiators under the floor.

The rooms have dimensions of 8 by 12 feet and 13½ feet in height. The fresh air is introduced into each room by a steam radiator at the rate of 8,000 feet per hour, and there are ventilating outlets at the top and bottom of the room besides the corner fireplace. The practical isolation of each patient is effected by the division into separate rooms, having abundant air-supply for the demands of respiration.

Other hospitals in this country present important features, of which only a few can be mentioned.

In Washington City, the Barnes Hospital consists of brick structures, the central being three stories high and the wings two stories. The coils of cast-iron pipes for hot water are placed in fresh-air chambers in the basement, for heating the building. From a shaft 8 feet in diameter and 30 feet in height, at a distance of 74 feet from the structure, a large brick air-duct leads under the building. A fan 8 feet in diameter is placed at the junction of the base of this shaft with the fresh-air duct, which drives the air along the duct at a velocity of from 400 to 600 feet per minute. Foul air is removed by two aspirating chimneys, about 5 feet in diameter, in the central building.

In the Boston City Hospital there is a central administrative building. At a convenient distance on either side of this are surgical and medical buildings. On a line with these are two pavilions of three stories. Placed transversely beyond the former are two pavilions of one story, and further on is located a pavilion of two stories. In a diagonal corner of the group is the out-patient department. The surgical and medical buildings contain operating rooms and offices on the first floor and patients' room and small wards on the two upper floors.

The Massachusetts General Hospital contains a good exemplifica-

tion of the square ward, being 44 feet square inside, 16 feet high at the walls, 22½ feet high in the centre, accommodating twenty beds, and allowing 1,840 feet of air-space to each bed. The Gay Building of this hospital for out-patients is considered as admirably adapted to its purposes.

The spacious, airy wards of a large establishment have their advantages in facilitating the attention of physicians and nurses as well as economizing space for the inmates. But there is nothing gained by this for the real welfare of the patient, which should be the aim and end of the arrangements of a hospital. While companionship to a limited extent may be acceptable to a patient, provided it be with friends who are congenial spirits, there is no evidence of the truth of the old-saw phrase that misery loves company, and least of all are the groans and moans of others any consolation to the afflicted. On the contrary, the nervous and excitable patient is acutely sensitive to any disturbance, such as must occur with a number of persons in the same apartment. Out of twenty inmates of a ward with various maladies or different stages of the same disease, it is scarcely possible that a half-hour during the day or night will pass without such manifestations of discomfort from one or another as to attract the attention of those who might otherwise be quiet. Even in health, it is well known that, if an individual is aroused from sleep by any cause, however trivial, it is difficult to secure again the influence of nature's sweet restorer. Much more difficulty, then, is experienced by the infirm person whose rest is disturbed by the restlessness of others in the same apartment at all hours of the night. No more effective exciting cause of insomnia can be imagined than such surroundings for a patient.

The supervision of a large number of patients by a few nurses is the excuse for occupying large wards; and, if only a limited provision is practicable in taking care of those without means, we must accept this arrangement as the choice of evils. But, where a method of accommodation is to be considered upon its merits, the accumulation of patients together in large apartments must be condemned, as unsuited to secure the best results.

The systematic administration of medicines and the prompt assistance rendered the patients, with a due regard to their diet, are among the most important advantages accruing from hospital treatment, as generally conducted. But there are other benefits to be attained for those requiring special care, which can only be secured by separation

from others to a large extent, and in some instances by isolation. It is not often found necessary to isolate a patient; but under certain circumstances the presence of even one other patient in the same room produces an unfavorable impression, and in such a case the nurse and medical attendant alone should be admitted to the apartment.

In most cases, however, the presence of another in the room is not objectionable; and the plan for a structure which I have to propose provides for two patients to occupy a room under ordinary circumstances. For the most part, this can be accomplished with due regard to the taste and disposition of the parties, so that they can be placed in pleasant companionship and relieve each other of the dreariness of long confinement.

It is foreseen that an objection may be urged against the small cottage principle, where ground-space is so important as in populous cities; and yet sites in the suburbs of most large towns may be had, with transportation facilities, which afford all the advantages of retirement from the busy throng, with ample space to spread out the structures to any extent that may be desired.

If a number of two-room cottages, with a passage between the rooms, were connected simply by a covered way, and extended around four sides of a square, with a kitchen and nurses' apartment in a centre building, it would meet satisfactorily the requirements. Even two-story houses might be constructed, with the stairway in the passage, having all the benefits of light and ventilation which the one-story structure affords, thus also saving ground-space, when an object.

It is extremely problematical whether any hospital should ever be located so near a large city as to make the area occupied by the structure a pecuniary consideration. Such a situation as affords freedom from the vitiated air of a large population is, according to my view, essential for securing the hygienic surroundings requisite for a hospital. When lands outside of the populous streets fulfil this condition, they may generally be had on such favorable terms as not to necessitate lofty piles of brick and stone, so that we may look to the most favorable conditions in the structures for the accommodation of the inmates who are to receive medical and surgical treatment.

The arrangement of the buildings should differ in Northern and Southern sections of this country, to correspond with the temperature

of the different regions, as the means of heating requisite for a very cold latitude will not be suited to a comparatively mild climate.

Upon general principles, the furnace with hot-air flues is objectionable for a hospital, nor is the plan of heating with steam-pipes desirable; and neither would be practicable for the proposed structure in the form of cottages.

In higher latitudes, where the winters are intensely cold, the houses may be placed in a row, end to end, with a chimney running up between the rooms, so as to have a fireplace in each for wood or coal, and a common passage between them, which should have glass windows on each side of the door, capable of being lowered in the summer. On one side of the chimney there should be a door in the partition wall, so that the medical attendant and nurses may pass directly from one room to the other in making the rounds of the institution.

The entrance to the row of houses would be in the middle of the line of a covered way leading from the central structure in the four different directions. If the two-story plan of houses be adopted, the round of visits would be made through the lower story from midway entrance to extremity of the wing, then passing back through the entire upper story and returning on lower floor to point of entrance.

In warmer latitudes, the construction should differ; and the heating of rooms may be effected with gas-stoves, while a provision is made for heating water, and for lighting also, with the gas.

Each house should be 40 by 20 feet, the rooms being 20 by 15 feet and 12 feet high, with a passage of 10 feet between the houses. On two sides opposite there shall be 12 houses in a row, and on two others 13 houses, with an entrance of 15 feet at each of the four corners. Thus fifty houses with 100 rooms afford accommodation for 200 patients with two in a room, or for less, if some of the rooms are occupied by a single patient for the purpose of isolation.

A veranda should extend along the inner front of each row of houses, and a covered way extend from the central structure to the middle of each veranda for communication in the service and for the convenience of patients.

The central building, having two stories and sixty feet square, contains kitchen, dining-room, dispensary, laundry, water-closet, office and sleeping apartments for superintendent and nurses.

Patients not confined to their rooms are expected to take their meals at the mess-hall at tables with graded diet, and food to be

furnished at rooms, under direction of medical attendant, to such as are unable to leave their rooms.

Each room to be supplied with a commode and disinfectants for necessary use, but patients who are able will visit the central water-closet.

Electric bells in the central building will be connected with each room, and a telephone at the centre of each row will communicate only with the superintendent's office. Attention is drawn to this outline as fulfilling the requirements of a hospital.

It has not been thought necessary to emphasize any special mode of effecting ventilation in these double cabins, as upon the principles of construction recognized ordinarily there should be a door, with a transom overhead, opening into each room from the passage. Two windows on each side of a room should have upper and lower sash, with weights, and shutters with Venetian slats, so that the currents of air when admitted from above or below should be moderated. These, with open chimney fireplaces, are expected to fulfil all the indications for a purification of the contaminated air, and by their very simplicity are preferable to artificial means of ventilation used in most large buildings.

It will be noted that no provision is made for pipes in the rooms to connect with sewers, as all such arrangements are likely to become a source of contamination to the atmosphere of the building in which they are placed; and all the slops and excrementitious deposits should be emptied into properly constructed sinks at the central water-closet.

If public water-works are not available for flushing the sewers, a large windmill may be constructed to pump water from a well into a capacious reservoir, so as to supply this need; and others may be placed at each angle of the square, if requisite, to furnish water to the rooms and for other purposes.

With the consciousness that the advocates of progress may find nothing in this process of simplification to commend itself to their adoption, I am thoroughly impressed with the conviction that it is calculated to confer the greatest good upon the greatest number of patients.

THE PUBLIC HOSPITALS OF BROOKLYN.

BY LEWIS S. PILCHER, M.D.

The hospitals of Brooklyn in their number, size, organization, character, and influence present peculiarities which are the natural result of the environment in which they have developed. A city primarily of homes, until within the past decade so provincial that it relied upon its neighbor across the East River for leadership in almost everything, absolutely insular, it has always been difficult for the comfortably housed, moderately well-to-do people who have formed the great mass of its citizens, to realize that there could be any call for any considerable hospital accommodation in its midst.

Fifty years ago, public attention was first sharply called to the need of a hospital by an accident near the City Hall, in which a gentleman from Buffalo had his leg broken. There was no place to which he could be carried for care and treatment, except the almshouse, four miles distant. Two prominent citizens, who witnessed the accident, had the stranger carried to a private house, and cared for at their own expense. Active efforts were then made by these gentlemen to establish a hospital, but the records of that day state that these efforts "met with apathy and discouragement." At the end of seven years, the net result of these efforts was a small frame building, purchased for $2,500, with a sign upon it reading "Brooklyn City Hospital." Again, as the Chronicler in the History of Brooklyn reads, "repeated and persistent efforts were made to interest the public and secure aid for enlarging these temporary accommodations, but with poor success." The years, however, brought a gradually increasing impetus to this hospital movement: a gift of $25,000 was received from one man, a yearly subsidy of $2,000 was voted from the city treasury, smaller gifts gradually accumulated, a fine site was purchased, and finally, April 29, 1852, a hospital building, worthy of the city whose name it bears, having been completed, was opened for the reception of patients. With subsequent enlargements, this hospital, well equipped in every essential particular, affords accommodation for one hundred and twenty-five patients. For nearly forty years this, the Brooklyn Hospital, has been doing its beneficent

work. It is a private benevolent incorporation. It has numbered among its trustees many of the most prominent and wealthy of the citizens of Brooklyn during this period; but these men have died one after another, and, with rare exceptions, have left no bequests to the hospital. An impression has largely prevailed in the public mind that the institution was a part of the public charities of the city, maintained by public funds, so that but few pecuniary gifts or bequests have come to it. The original charter of the Union Ferry Company of Brooklyn gave this hospital a claim upon any surplus that should be found to have accumulated by that company at the expiration of certain privileges. This claim was compromised some years since by the payment by the Ferry Company of $75,000 into the treasury of the hospital. This has been invested as a permanent endowment fund. This, however, can furnish but a small fraction of the money required annually to maintain such a hospital. The apathy which has prevented the reception by this institution of large bequests from Brooklyn's citizens is strange. The result is that this, the oldest hospital in the city, is still crippled by inadequate resources, and is compelled by its poverty to keep closed about one-half of its beds. Although it has accommodations for one hundred and twenty-five, only an average of sixty beds were used during the year 1889.

The city of Brooklyn is in the County of Kings on Long Island. Practically, the city and county are identical; for the population of the outlying country towns which are included within the county limits is relatively insignificant. As a part of its almshouse establishment, the county sustains a hospital, which is a large and important institution. The county buildings, including the hospital, are in the village of Flatbush, about four miles from the Brooklyn City Hall. The earlier history of this hospital I am unable to trace; but I find that as early as the year 1856 it had attained large proportions. The daily average number of patients treated in it during that year was 453. The total number treated during the year was 3,360, and the expenditures for the hospital amounted to $78,320.02. The population of Brooklyn was then 200,000 souls. In 1889, though the population of the city had quadrupled, the number of patients cared for at this, its only public hospital, had increased but slightly. 514 patients are reported as being in the hospital at the date of the last annual report of its superintendent, July 31, 1889. The expense of maintaining the hospital for the year 1889 was $62,124.62. The total number treated was 4,552. This is an astonishing exhibit to

make, when it is remembered that the increase in population must have brought with it an increase in the number of the dependent, the improvident, and the destitute in much greater proportion than that of the actual increase in inhabitants. Other influences, however, have been at work to provide for them, to which attention will shortly be drawn.

The Kings County Hospital is a single large building, built with reference to economy of material, space, and service, answering in no respect the present accepted requirements of hospital construction. It is continually overcrowded. The accumulation of five hundred patients under one roof is greatly to be deplored. The larger proportion of the cases that are assembled are of course chronics, such as alcoholics, consumptives, rheumatics, epileptics, paralytics, nephritics, bronchitics, venereals, and ulcers; but there is in addition a large obstetric service. Many pneumonias, pleurisies, and fevers are cared for; while diphtheria, scarlet fever, measles, and erysipelas cases are likewise received. The organization of the hospital is quite as archaic as the structure of its building. Under the control of the Commissioners of Charities and Corrections of the county, local political considerations cannot be ignored in its management. The actual direction of the treatment of the five hundred patients is vested in a medical superintendent, who is also the executive chief of the hospital. With him are associated an assistant medical superintendent and five assistant physicians. These assistant physicians are recent medical graduates, and correspond to the house staff or internes of other hospitals. They serve without salary for one year, when they are replaced by new appointees. There is also a consulting staff of physicians and surgeons, who may be called upon as needed.

It has been exceedingly unfortunate, both for the institution itself and for the city which it serves, that this great hospital should have been located at such a distance from the city as to eliminate it almost entirely from the medical world of the city. The result has been to keep it, what it was at first, an appendage of the Almshouse. Only to a limited extent has it supplied any of the hospital needs of the city. It has not enjoyed the advantages of the sympathies or the criticisms of the profession of the city in its work, nor has it contributed to any considerable extent to the enrichment of professional information or experience.

A fairer index as to the extent of Brooklyn's needs for the care of

its sick may be found in the records of its County Lunatic Asylum. In this direction, no private benevolent organizations have sprung up to divide the public burden; and the whole dark picture of need and misery is drawn in strong lines, in the official reports. Here it is: In 1856, the total number of insane patients treated in the Kings County Lunatic Asylum was 330; in 1889, it was 2,625. The number of new patients admitted to the asylum was, in 1856, 145; in 1889, 503. The county has been compelled to increase its accommodations for the insane from time to time. The greatest change has only quite recently been consummated in the erection, upon a tract of land called St. Johnland, some forty-five miles away from the city, of sixteen two-story frame cottages, to which the hopelessly insane are sent. Here additional cottages will be erected as need may require. 718 patients were cared for in these cottages during 1889.

The general hospital of the county cannot much longer fail to receive attention. Defective in its construction as it is, it is constantly overcrowded. Intended to accommodate 400 patients, 500 are much of the time crowded within its walls. At the present moment, Brooklyn is somewhat dazed by the conditions that attend its rapid growth. The problems of street paving, of rapid transit, of market facilities, of bridge extension, of park management, of police organization, of school-house building, the multiplication of new dwellings, factories, warehouses, and wharves, and similar things, crowd such matters as hospital construction out of sight. This failure to realize hospital needs is also made more pronounced by the general but erroneous impression that this hospital work is being adequately performed by private charitable organizations, which are assisted from the public treasury.

Oppert has estimated the needs of hospital accommodation in cities at 4 for every thousand of population. The city of London in 1884 supported 7 beds for every thousand. Accepting, however, the smaller proportion, Brooklyn to-day, with its 859,000 of inhabitants, should have 3,436 beds available for those in need of hospital care. As we have seen, the county maintains at the most 500 beds. To this number may be added 1,225 beds in ten other general hospitals, and 175 beds in 7 special hospitals, all maintained by private charity, with some public aid, giving a total of only 1,900 hospital beds as the complete number provided for invalids of all classes in the County of Kings, New York, including the city of Brooklyn.

GENERAL HOSPITALS.

Names of Institutions.	*Number of Beds in Each.*
Brooklyn Hospital,	120
Long Island College Hospital,	175
St. Catherine's Hospital,	160
St. Peter's Hospital,	250
St. Mary's Hospital,	200
Lutheran Hospital,	40
Methodist Episcopal Hospital,	65
Homœopathic Hospital,	125
St. John's Hospital,	85
Norwegian Hospital,	10
	1,225

SPECIAL HOSPITALS.

Eastern District Reception Hospital,	25
Lucretia Mott Dispensary (Women),	10
Woman's Homœopathic Hospital,	10
Brooklyn Eye and Ear Hospital,	10
Home for Consumptives,	75
St. Mary's Female Hospital,	30
Brooklyn Maternity,	15
	175

I do not think that I am too sanguine in indulging a belief that in the very near future a revolution in Brooklyn's public hospital arrangements will be made. The public mind is being educated to the city's needs; the public conscience is being awakened to the city's duty; indications of public spirit that responds to interests of the city that are higher than those which present simply gross material aspects are becoming increasingly manifest. It cannot be long before improved means of transit will bring the County Hospital within a few minutes' distance from the business centre of the city, so that its present isolation will no longer exist. Brooklyn will then insist that its great public hospital shall be the equal in its arrangements, appointments, and organization of those of other great cities, and that it shall show professional results commensurate with its size and opportunities.

Lord Randolph Churchill in a recent speech at a hospital dinner in London said: "The hospitals of this metropolis and of the great towns of England are a perpetually flowing fountain of medical science; and all great discoveries of medical science, all the new remedies which medical science brings to light for the treatment of disease, and all the ingenious associations of the appliances of

mechanism and of instruments take their origin and thrive in the hospitals before they are applied to the treatment of disease outside the hospitals. . . . I wonder how many rich people there are in this town who have met with serious illness or accident, and who, by almost miraculous medical skill and almost miraculous patience in medical nursing, have recovered, who never thought to give a single sixpence to the hospital to which they may be said to owe absolutely their prolonged life."

These post-prandial words of the Honorable Lord are words of truth and soberness. From no investment can a community gain a larger or more certain return than from that which it puts into the support of its hospitals. The hospital cares for the poor, relieves suffering, restores workers to the community just to the extent that the hospital beds are occupied by patients; but, in addition, the knowledge that is gained by the physicians who labor in these hospital wards, and by the nurses who are trained there, is continually accumulating as a fund to be drawn upon by every citizen in his greatest extremity. In hospitals only can young men receive the training essential to fit them for becoming the physicians of the people; in hospitals only can that special training be obtained by those older in the profession of medicine which can make them the valued consultants needed in the most important and critical cases. Every community can, therefore, well afford to deal generously with its hospitals. To hamper their work by doling out the least possible sum that may suffice to accomplish the perfunctory care of the absolutely destitute sick that must be sheltered is the height of folly.

A profound confidence in the good sense and judgment of the Brooklyn public it is that convinces me that the facts as regards the hospital needs of our city are but to be sufficiently brought to the attention of the people to insure whatever appropriations may be necessary for putting its hospitals in excellent condition.

Of the ten general hospitals of Brooklyn mentioned, which are not the property of the city, the origin and work of the Brooklyn Hospital have already been noted. The second in order of establishment was the Long Island College Hospital, which, as its name indicates, was established and is maintained for the primary purpose of affording clinical facilities for the instruction of students in medicine. The date of its establishment is 1859. It has now 175 beds, in which were treated 1,906 patients during the year 1889. 17,033 out-patients

were also treated in its Dispensary Department in 1889. 151 medical students attended the courses of instruction in its wards, and 45 pupils were under training in its Training School for Nurses. Its career, during the thirty years of its active work, has illustrated in a marked manner the reflex value to a community of hospital work in its broadest and best aspects. It has been a stimulus to medical thought and investigation; it has quickened, broadened, and elevated the tone of the medical profession of the city; it has trained the men who are the leaders in the medical profession of the city to-day; in its earlier years it called to the city such men as Austin Flint, Frank Hastings Hamilton, Corydon L. Ford, William Warren Greene, Samuel G. Armor, to whom have now succeeded men, trained in its own wards, who are worthy successors of these great men. It has long been the dream of some of Brooklyn's foremost scholars that a foundation for a great university should be established in that city. Slight reflection will show that Brooklyn presents conditions unusually favorable for academic life and university work. It needs but a leader who may be able to grasp and weld together the conditions which are already ready to his hand, to have this dream realized. Not the least important element in this university of the future has already been elaborated in this college hospital.

The Roman Catholic Church maintains in Brooklyn three large hospitals: St. Peter's, established in 1864; St. Catherine's, in 1870; and St. Mary's, in 1882. The number of beds furnished by these hospitals aggregates 610, and the number of patients treated in them during 1880 was 4,417.

The Protestant Episcopal Church maintains one hospital, St. John's, with 85 beds, established in 1871.

The supporters of the homœopathic medical practice also maintain a hospital of 125 beds, which dates its foundation from the year 1871.

An Evangelical Lutheran Hospital of 40 beds, and a Norwegian Hospital of 10 beds, have been established within the last decade.

The most important of the recent additions to the hospitals of Brooklyn is the Methodist Episcopal Hospital, which was opened for patients in December, 1887. This hospital owes its origin to the broad, general, charitable heart and the local public spirit of one man, Mr. George I. Seney, who, at a time when he was the fortunate possessor of large business gains, became impressed with the hospital needs of the city of his residence, and determined with some of his gains to build for that city a hospital which would be as perfect in

its plan and its appointments as the most recent tenets of hospital construction might dictate. In order that the scientific side of hospital work might be properly blended with and aided by its humanitarian side, his first step was to put the enterprise under the responsible direction of that branch of the Christian Church of which he was himself a member, and of which his father had been an honored minister; namely, the Methodist Episcopal Church. The building plans adopted for this hospital were upon a broad and liberal scale; and, as the work progressed, the entire cost was paid by the liberal founder as the bills matured. But a time came when unexpected reverses made it impossible for Mr. Seney to longer continue his benefactions to the institution. At this time a large plot of ground in a beautiful situation, and three buildings externally complete, remained as an evidence of the large plans of the founder. More than $400,000 had been expended by him in the work up to that time.

When the gifts of the original benefactor were suspended, the work of raising funds for completing the buildings was taken up systematically in the Methodist Episcopal Church. In due time one of the buildings, a two-story pavilion, closely following in its plan and arrangements the Johns Hopkins model, was completed, and opened for hospital uses. Sixty beds have thus been made available. The third year is now well advanced since this pavilion was opened. Its beds are continually filled; and a strong appeal is now being made to the public for funds to complete and open a second building. The addition of sixty more beds to the hospital accommodations of the city of Brooklyn is, however, by no means the most important of the advantages thus far conferred by this hospital. It is in addition constantly stimulating the growth of higher ideals of hospital construction, work, and management in the city.

The special hospitals of the city comprise one Accident Reception Hospital, an Eye and Ear Hospital, one Home for Consumptives, one Maternity Hospital, and three Hospitals for Women, comprising in all 175 beds.

An additional phase of the hospital work of Brooklyn which requires notice at this point is the relief which is afforded to the sick and injured who do not require to be retained in hospital beds; that is to say, the dispensary work for ambulant patients. Nearly all of the hospitals maintain such a dispensary service in connection with their indoor work. There are also at least twelve other institutions in which dispensary work is carried on. The total number of ambu-

lant patients treated in the outdoor departments of the hospitals and in the dispensaries proper during the year 1889, as officially recorded in the reports made to the comptroller of the city and in the published reports of the various institutions, aggregates 155,603. The total number of indoor patients treated in the wards of the various hospitals was 9,500. The total amount expended in accomplishing this charitable relief toward 165,103 individuals was $354,703.74. The total number of days of indoor hospital treatment was 277,965. The average per diem cost of this treatment was about $1.00. That is to say, $277,965 was expended for hospital work proper, and $76,738.74 for dispensary work. The maintenance, therefore, of each of the 9,500 hospital patients amounted to $29.25, and the expense of relieving each dispensary patient was 49⅓ cents. All this is in addition to the 4,552 patients who were cared for at the County Hospital at an expense of $62,124.62, or $13.65 per capita.

Of the total amount of $354,703.74 which, as above stated, was expended in the city of Brooklyn for the relief of its sick poor, $127,990.99 was paid out of the city treasury; and the remaining $226,712.75 measures the amount of the charitable contributions of the citizens plus the interest accrued from endowments and the amounts paid by patients themselves. I have not the data for computing exactly these latter items, but in a general way I think it amounts to about twenty-five per cent. of the entire cost of the hospital work. Whatever it may be, it is immaterial here; for I desire here more particularly to call attention to what is done by the city officially in the way of contributing to hospital maintenance.

There has grown up in our city a peculiar state of affairs as regards the relations of the public treasury to the hospital work of the city, which has now reached dimensions that call for investigation and reorganization.

I find from the records of the county that as far back as Oct. 24, 1840, the Superintendents of the Poor informed the Board of Supervisors that the provisions for the sick at the County Almshouse were inadequate, and that the rooms of the hospital were so overcrowded that they had made arrangements with the managers of the City Hospital (it is to be remembered that this so-called "City" was the private hospital already mentioned as the Brooklyn Hospital) to receive from the County Poorhouse a portion of the sick paupers. This I believe to have been the beginning of the payments from the public treasury to the private hospitals of the city. A few years

later the practice had become an established custom, and the sum of $2,000 per annum to the "City" Hospital was one of the regular items of the city budget. As new hospitals were established, they presented their claims to recognition from the city treasury in like manner. Finally, special legislation was procured from the legislature of the State, directing that specified sums be paid annually to certain hospitals, the conditions being that these hospitals agreed to care for such sick poor as should be sent to them by the authorities of the city. The amount specified in this law to be paid to the hospitals was in most of them $4,000. Smaller amounts were specified in one or two instances only. From time to time, as new institutions were founded, their promoters caused amendments to this original law to be introduced, whereby similar sums were directed to be paid to them, until at the present time there are some thirteen institutions that are legal claimants for annual appropriations from the city in recognition of their work in the care in hospitals of the city's poor. The amount to be paid is fixed arbitrarily, and bears no relation to the amount of work done. Yet another feature was in process of time added to this legislation, whereby additional grants were made to specified institutions on account of the dispensary work done by them. $1,500 was the regulation stipend fixed for this purpose, and the number of these institutions has gradually increased until it amounts to nineteen. At the last session of the legislature there were three more applicants for admission to the list; but the bill in their favor, which was passed by the legislature, was vetoed by the governor at the request of the mayor of the city. As regards the institutions that now receive this stipend, the same criticism as to the lack of any relations between the amount of work done and the amount of money received that was made above in regard to the hospital work is again true; for the records show that an institution which relieves many thousands (Long Island College Hospital, 17,033; Central Dispensary, 12,366) receives no more than an institution which relieves but a few hundred (Orthopedic Dispensary, 610; St. Catherine's, 580; St. Mary's, 420).

Yet another source of supply from the public treasury remains to be noted; namely, the Excise Fund. The Common Council of the city is in the habit of annually dividing among the charitable institutions of the city certain moneys which constitute the Excise Fund, chiefly derived from the amounts paid for licenses to sell liquor. Some $150,000 is annually distributed; and of this the

hospitals and dispensaries get a share each pro rata according to the amount of charitable work done. The highest amount received by any institution from this source in the year 1889 was $8,849.09 received by St. Catherine's Hospital. From these various sources a considerable revenue accrues to some institutions. The largest amount received by any one institution in 1889 was St. Catherine's Hospital, which received $15,545.09. The following is a list of the amounts received by the various hospitals and dispensaries of the city in 1889, as shown by the records of the comptroller's office: —

Name of Hospital or Dispensary.	*Amount received from City.*	*No. of Patients treated.*	
		Hospital.	*Dispensary.*
St. Catherine's,	$15,545.09	2,003	580
Homœopathic,	13,513.89	585	9,147
St. Peter's,	12,849.00	1,354	1,224
St. Mary's,	12,728.85	1,060	420
Brooklyn,	10,628.98	783	610
Long Island College,	9,490.77	1,906	17,033
St. Mary's Female,	7,488.39	412	5,478
Eastern District,	6,615.00	253	13,000
Methodist Episcopal,	6,488.74	398	585
Home for Consumptives,	4,968.09	192	....
Maternity,	3,974.67	151	....
Eye and Ear,	3,025.45	107	8,982
Woman's (M. A. D. Jones),	2,987.22	64	1,025
Central Dispensary,	2,376.55	....	12,366
Lutheran Hospital,	2,252.97	98	2
Bushwick and East Brooklyn,	2,100.25	....	4,579
Gates Avenue Homœopathic Dispensary,	1,953.74	....	6,586
Central Homœopathic Dispensary,	1,874.09	....	5,816
Woman's Homœop. Hospital and Disp.,	1,842.56	65	5,639
City Dispensary,	1,500.00	....	7,658
Eclectic Dispensary,	1,500.00	....	1,713
Atlantic Avenue Dispensary,	1,500.00	....	4,019
Eastern Dist. Homœopathic Dispensary,	1,500.00	....	11,000
Southern Dispensary,	1,479.86	....	6,255
Helping Hand Dispensary,	1,000.00	....	672
Bedford Dispensary,	214.02	....	1,665
Lucretia Mott Dispensary,	123.10	18	316

No description of the hospital work of Brooklyn would be complete without a statement of the ambulance work. Unqualified praise can be given to this work; and it may be held up as a model to be followed by other cities. Under the direction of the Commissioner of Health of the city, the city is divided into five districts; and for each district an ambulance service is provided, at an expense of $1,200 each annually. Each ambulance is stationed at a general

hospital located within its boundaries, which is in communication with police headquarters by a special telephone line. Accidents or other conditions demanding medical aid which come to the knowledge of the police are at once telephoned to police headquarters, from which the call is sent to the ambulance in whose district the case may be. The appliances for immediate response at the ambulance stables are modelled after that developed by the fire department, and are so perfect that, as a rule, within two minutes, at most, after the reception of a call the ambulance, with its surgeon and its supplies for first aid, is *en route* for the indicated spot. When the ambulance has once reached the individual in whose behalf the call was sent out, the ambulance surgeon may, according to the needs of the case as he finds it, either give it the immediate attention which is called for, and dismiss it, or may take it home, if desired, or may take it to the hospital for further care. During the year 1889, the ambulances of Brooklyn responded to 4,983 calls. Some member of the house staff of the hospital is usually detailed as the surgeon for the ambulance stationed at that hospital.

In contradistinction to this admirable provision made by the city for the relief of sudden accident or distress must be placed a most serious omission thus far to provide for a much greater need, which has been ignored in great measure simply because it does not obtrude itself on public notice in so startling and dramatic a way as do accidents. I refer to the care of cases of contagious diseases, particularly diphtheria and scarlet fever. From all the hospitals of the city such cases are excluded. At the County Hospital they are received, although that hospital has no special means of caring for them. A new hospital for contagious diseases, more particularly small-pox, is just approaching completion, and will afford ample provision for the care of that class of cases. This is under the control of the Commissioner of Health of the city, and is located in the town of Flatbush, in the immediate neighborhood of the County Hospital. But for diphtheria and scarlet fever patients there is as yet no provision. The extent to which these latter diseases prevail may be estimated from the fact that in the year 1889 1,118 deaths from diphtheria, and 381 more from that form of it called "croup," took place in the city, and 272 deaths from scarlet fever. The importance to public welfare of the isolation of cases of these diseases, as well as the advantage to the individual patients in very many instances, needs no elaboration from me here. In order to complete my pict-

ure of the hospital work of my city, I simply state these facts to indicate one of its defects. To meet the needs of this class of sufferers, for whose adequate isolation the public is so greatly concerned, it is evident that in a city spread out over so great a territory as is the city of Brooklyn no one institution could suffice, wherever it might be placed. The wards that are to answer the needs of this class of the sick must be of easy and quick access, and must be in an environment that will command the confidence of the people. It may be that in the ambulance arrangements of the city will be found a suggestion that will be fruitful in the line of what may be done for these contagious diseases; namely, a number of small isolated pavilions, within the grounds of already established hospitals, cared for by the medical and nursing staff of these hospitals, while the expense of this work is defrayed from the funds of the Department of Health of the city, the head of which should retain a general supervision of the whole.

This must conclude what I may now say about the hospital work of my own city. I have drawn a faithful picture of our hospital conditions. The defects which they present are very great. They are very far short of measuring up to the present needs of our population; but, nevertheless, the work that is being done is a vast and a creditable one. There are behind none of the hospitals of Brooklyn a long history and venerable traditions; none of them possess large endowments or wealthy patrons. A steady and assured income is the great need of every one of them. In so far as they do public work and bear public burdens, they are rightful claimants for public money. In so far as they are the agents of organized beneficence, they appeal to the charity of the community. In so far as they return to the community better medical knowledge and skill, and training in the nursing of the sick, they appeal to that most powerful of all instincts in the human heart, that of self-preservation, for adequate support and larger opportunities.

The apathy of any community toward its hospitals must spring only from lack of information or from misapprehension. To supply the one and correct the other has been the object of this communication.

VIII.

The Care of Children.

DEPENDENT AND DELINQUENT CHILDREN IN THIS COUNTRY AND ABROAD.

BY ELIZABETH C. PUTNAM.

When I was starting, last summer, for a short trip to England and France, my friends asked, doubtfully, whether I expected to learn much from Old World institutions, and reminded me that the conditions of life are very different on the two sides of the ocean. Under the auspices of the International Congress, held in Paris for the consideration of questions of public assistance, and through the kindness of individual members, opportunities were given us for visiting the Infant Asylum at Bicêtre, the schools at Rueil and at Montevrain, besides other institutions. In England the same courtesy was extended through the free-masonry which brings all special students into cordial recognition by their respective brotherhoods and sisterhoods. From notes taken down upon the spot or very soon after visiting these schools, and after seeing more than twenty children at their boarding places, I shall hope to convince you that, while there exists in those countries an enormous burden of pauperism, which we should study in its prime causes and avoid, there are at the same time good results being obtained in the way of remedial work by methods so simple and inexpensive as to appear in advance quite inadequate.

At all events, we should reciprocate the growing interest expressed in France and England, and elsewhere, concerning American methods within the past ten years. We find French and English specialists familiar with the reports of the Michigan State Public School, and the legal provision for dependent children; while Mr. C. D. Randall, of that State, assured you at your last Conference that the recent Michigan statute had "caught inspiration from the learned

report of M. Rousselle, of the French Senate." We find the so-called "Massachusetts System" of attendance at trial of juvenile offenders, and probation under the supervision of State agents, recommended in 1881 for adoption in England, and already adopted to some extent in France, M. Henri Rollet being authorized to act as unpaid counsel for boys or girls under arrest before the Court of Paris, with the title of "Avocat des Enfants." In a recent report from New South Wales may be found a quotation from the report of our Massachusetts State Industrial School for Girls, with the statement that its recommendations had been adopted for the girls' school there. Most notable of all is the reference made by Miss F. Davenport Hill, on November 14, to some of the States of our Union in an address before the Poor Law Conference of the Yorkshire District, England, upon the "Poor Law Act of 1889," the first section of which concerns neglected children, and runs as follows: —

"I. (1) Where a child is maintained by the guardians of any Union, and was deserted by its parent, the guardians may at any time resolve that such child shall be under the control of the guardians until it reaches the age, if a boy, of sixteen, and, if a girl, of eighteen years, and thereupon until the child reaches that age all the powers and rights of such parent in respect of that child shall, subject as in this Act mentioned, vest in the guardians; provided that the guardians may rescind such resolution if they think that it will be for the benefit of the child that it should be rescinded. . . . For the purposes of this Act, a child shall be deemed to be maintained by the guardians if it is wholly or partly maintained by them in a workhouse, or in a district school, separate school (or other hospital or certified school . . .), or is boarded out by the guardians, whether within or without the limits of the Union."

We read in the special report to the French Congress a recognition of our system of volunteer visitors, women; and we find a recommendation, by vote of that Congress, that each child at board be provided with such a volunteer visitor, who shall be invited to interest herself in a special manner in its welfare. Dr. F. P. Aschrott, after spending several months in this country in order to study the American system of penology and imprisonment, reported to the "Juristischen Gesellschaft" at Berlin, in March, 1889, that he had been unable to discover any American system, each State having invented a system of its own; that, while lynch-law is still heard of in some States, in others there exist excellent systems, which might well be

not only admired, but also adopted in Germany. This being the case, it is all the more important that those who earnestly desire to bequeath good systems to coming generations should study both the mistakes and the good points of Old World methods before our own become stereotyped.

There are in France over 130,000 children assisted by the State, 87,000 of whom are wholly maintained at public expense. In England and Wales alone there are over a quarter of a million "pauper children." These facts should warn us to do our utmost to grapple in season with the problem of enabling or inducing parents to attend to the care of their offspring, instead of leaving that duty to the government of the State or to private charities. Leaving that problem to our excellent charity organizations and to other students of political economy, our concern here to-day is with such actually dependent and delinquent children as have to be provided for until they can be restored to the community in the best moral and physical condition of which they are capable, and at the least cost consistent with thorough work.

Two conditions are absolutely essential to the success of such an undertaking: *first*, that the dependent and delinquent shall be in a decided minority; and *second*, that the community upon which they are to be engrafted shall be in a state of such healthy development as to be capable of nourishing and invigorating these, its less promising members. We should remember that, while the conditions are in many respects different on the two sides of the Atlantic, it is not a fact that the individuals whom we find in the care of the State are so very different from those in foreign lands, many of them being of foreign parentage. Although visitors to our State schools, in the kindness of their hearts, assure the boys that any one of them "may become governor of the State," or even aspire to higher honors, we, their guardians, know that children of the best stock rarely come upon the State, and that, if by some mischance an exceptionally fine creature is found adrift, we can readily secure his promotion to the ranks where he belongs. We need not lay out our plan of work with a view to these exceptional cases. The vital questions are: *First*, What is the probable outlook of the average boy or girl, what the limit of his capacity for earning a living and for maintaining a good character? *Second*, Can he find a good home in a private family, with schooling, free of expense or at a moderate cost, without injuring other children by his example? *Third*, If he needs restraint

and must be placed in an institution, does his training there furnish the motive power needed to develop his capacity to the utmost? *Fourth*, Does it prepare him for the social conditions, including the inevitable hardships of life, in the kind of community in which he will find a demand for the kind of work he can perform?

These tests may be applied to the methods of caring for the wards of the State, or of private institutions, all the world over.

M. Henri Rollet, in his interesting summary presented to the International Congress of Public Assistance, shows us the mistakes made during the Middle Ages,— mistakes which must have involved a degree of suffering on the part of children in orphanages and foundling hospitals which it is unpleasant to recognize. Before 1670, the French government did not concern itself with foundlings, who were theoretically regarded as "waifs and strays." The High Lord Justices who possessed rights over property of this kind should have provided for these infants, but often failed to discharge this duty and refused to contribute to their maintenance. In 1670, the Foundling Asylum was established by Louis XIV., at the instance of Saint Vincent de Paul. Through imperfect arrangements many died. Thereafter a better system was secured, the infants being boarded out under authorized supervision of the Sisters of Charity; but, as payment of board ceased at three years of age, the children were in most instances returned to the asylum, where vast numbers accumulated. There they were instructed in religious duties, and attempts were made to teach them trades; but, in fact, they were too often found begging at the gates or carrying torches or banners, the girls being at one time employed as "weepers" in funeral processions, thus bringing in an income to the Hospice. It was not strange, therefore, that boys thus brought up, of sufficient age and apparent strength for farm work, were soon returned by their employers, who complained that these apprentices had neither taste nor courage for the hard work of self-support. In 1761, it was decided that board should be paid beyond the age of thirteen years, in order to prevent the return to the asylum. "Profiting by the lessons of the past," the report continues, "the present administration has but one object in view; namely, to provide each homeless child with a family" by paying a moderate stipend for his board up to his thirteenth year and never having him returned to the asylum. "The child who thus sees his foster parents work hard, saving sou by sou to establish their children and to become owners of a piece of land; who witnesses their precaution in

a bad season, their patience in bearing privations, and their joys when they can reap the fruits of their toil,—this child, we say, who has through a long series of years such an example before his eyes, is ready to bear well the apprenticeship of life."

And yet the English, and we in this country, went on in the old ways nearly a century longer than the Scotch, Irish, or French, too often keeping dependent children in large institutions, obliging them, or the community in their behalf, to contribute to the maintenance of the staff of officers necessary to carry on these institutions, when all the while better results might have been secured by paying for the support of the child only, in a private family, with such education as the State provides for all children of the laboring classes. To secure the safety and well-being of children thus placed, thorough supervision must be insisted upon. This is emphasized by the French and English governments. No child should ever be placed out of the range of such supervision; no infant beyond the reach of medical supervision; no girl who is approaching womanhood should ever be placed out of reach of supervision by a woman, provided she has neither a sister nor mother of her own to visit her. The only exceptions to these rules should be in case of legal adoption or guardianship, after a season of probation, and subject to revision from time to time by municipal counsels or probate court.* If children can be placed free of cost subject to these restrictions, it is unwise to introduce the payment of board. Where there is no such opportunity, it is better to pay enough to reimburse some good motherly woman for the additional cost of a young child placed in her family than to take the risk of distributing children about the country, without the safeguards mentioned above; better and less costly than to maintain them in an institution.

Among the objections brought forward from time to time against the introduction of the boarding out system, the following deserve our careful consideration.

First, that which was suggested by Professor Henry Fawcett, who believed that the community would be demoralized by witnessing the expenditure of public money in behalf of the outcast children of shiftless or unfaithful parents.

Second, by Mr. Letchworth, in 1884, that the public might lose the generous contributions now made to support orphanages and other children's homes.

*See report to Conference of Charities and Correction of 1889 by Mr. C. D. Randall, and report to the French Congrès d'Assistance Publique, by M. Rousselle.

Third, that the public might lose the benefit resulting from the labors of a large force of benevolent workers who serve without compensation.

Fourth, that the children might never be fitted to avail themselves of the best homes if placed out without having received training in an institution.

As to the first, Miss Florence Davenport Hill, in her second edition of "The Children of the State," acquainted us with the fact that Professor Fawcett withdrew all his objections to the system when he became convinced by its practical working not only of its value to the individual child, but also of its deterrent effect upon parents who would by some means manage, in many instances, to keep the child "off the rates" when they learned that, instead of being kept in an impressive building convenient to visit, it was to get its bringing up in the cottage of a plain laborer.

As to objection No. 2, the experience of the Massachusetts Infant Asylum proves that private donations are willingly bestowed with the full understanding that more than half its annual expenses are for payment of board for at least two-thirds of the number of children under its care. The St. Vincent de Paul Society, in its report of 1889, states that the constant purpose of their agent is *not* to increase the number of children in institutions. While, in Massachusetts, the neglected and dependent children under the State's care are boarded from State appropriations, they are constantly receiving expressions of good will from neighbors, and last year a club of girls in Springfield dressed dolls for distribution to the little boarded out girls.

As to No. 3, we are sure that no one will be more ready than the good friend of the system, Mr. Locke,— who conscientiously raised these possible objections in 1884,—to be convinced that a still larger force of volunteer visitors can be effectively employed in developing the boarding out system than can be well occupied in direct management of an institution.

In Massachusetts, the auxiliary visitors have not visited the children at board. These visitors had been selected expressly for the care of the older State wards, the boarding out system not having been inaugurated till a year or more after they had been commissioned and instructed in their work. The experiment was to be tried with utmost care, and the children were often to be boarded in remote country towns or farms. It was believed, therefore, to be

desirable to employ one or more salaried visitors, women, who should give their whole time to investigating homes, transporting children, and paying out the money for board and clothing. In England, the Volunteer Boarding-out Committees not only visit the children, but also attend to the financial affairs, and make reports to the government without being even reimbursed for their travelling expenses; and the experience of England and of New South Wales has proved the success of volunteer work in connection with State organization.

Hon. Arthur Renwick, in his report to the Children's Relief Department, New South Wales, for the year ending April 5, 1889, states that "the influence of home life upon the boarded out children is becoming more apparent every year," and shows the decrease in the number of cases of immoral practices reported by the board's inspectors during the year, the holding of their own in school studies by these children in competing with children brought up under parental care, and the strong attachment between foster parent and child. He goes on to say that, "although the visits of the inspectors do good, they are not so satisfactory as the local supervision of the lady visitors," his only complaint of the latter being that they fail to record their frequent visits with due punctuality.

It has become a recognized fact that children who have been boarded out are, as a rule, found to be capable of self-support about two years earlier than children of the same class who have been brought up in institutions.

It is not the cleanliness, the health-giving food, nor the gymnastic drill of an institution that tends to enervate these children; for they do not regard these things as luxuries nor as necessities of life. The objection to institution life is to be found rather in the lack of direct claims which would appeal to such children in their homes, whether for themselves or in behalf of other members of the family who would suffer from cold or hunger unless exertion were made to supply the need. We quote the following from a recent report by the "Ladies' Visiting Association," a report which is admirable in its straightforward statements. The girls visited had been trained in the best public institution for dependent children that I have ever seen. The report reads as follows:—

"Most of the girls who go out from the Homes can sweep, black grates, and wash fairly well; but in the Homes (cottages) they are accustomed to be watched at every turn and allowed to exercise too little responsibility and judgment, so that, when left to perform the

simplest offices, they often seem dazed and helpless, and require great patience and much teaching."

The Kings Norton Boarding-out Committee, which is at work in the neighborhood of the school just mentioned, presents a report of all boys and girls who remained on its list till they began to earn their own livelihood, at thirteen years of age. Among them were children who suffered from the terrible disadvantages of inherited diseases, both mental and physical; others being members of families belonging to the criminal and vicious class; all imbued with knowledge revolting and contaminating to the last degree. Of these 209 children (82 boys and 127 girls), who during a period of sixteen years had begun to earn their living, only 23 have passed out of sight up to the age of sixteen, and 173 were in communication with the committee up to the age of twenty. Eighty per cent. have never caused the committee the least trouble or anxiety about their conduct. Fifteen per cent. were doubtful or troublesome, but improving. Less than five per cent. (that is, eight individuals) can be called unsatisfactory. The average per capita cost of board and other expenses is £11 a year ($55).* Satisfactory, 168; doubtful or troublesome, 133; unsatisfactory, 8; convicts or criminals, none. Five have died. I can bear witness to the fairness of their statements in the cases I became acquainted with. While only three shillings per week are allowed (75 cts.), nearly all the houses bore marks of something above the mere necessities of life, having stuffed birds or wax flowers, or other simple decorations. One of the boys had just become a telegraph messenger, continuing in his home and paying his board from his wages. A little nurse-girl had come to ask advice from her foster mother, and was to return to her for a week's rest. In one house there happened to be at the time of my visit a girl of eighteen, who had come home to wait for a new place; a girl of fourteen, just to go out; a child of six and an infant in arms, both at board and seeming to complete the family life of mutual helpfulness and good will.†

After providing for children who are simply dependent, there remain upon our hands: first, the defective in mind or body; second, the

*The average per capita cost for children boarded out from the Massachusetts State Primary School, clothing and medical care included, is $1.86 per week. Cost of supervision not included.

† For further study of the boarding out of dependent and delinquent children, see Miss Florence Davenport Hill's "Children of the State," second edition, edited by Miss Fanny Fowke, and lately published by Macmillan & Co., New York.

young criminals who are unfit to mingle with other boys and girls, and who need more or less restraint and discipline for a sufficient time to change their habits of life. For the first class, asylums or hospitals must be provided; for the second, reformatory schools, which will be considered later.

Besides these, we have to take into account the class of children designated in England as "Ins and Outs"; that is temporary dependents, whose parents may become able to provide for them at an early day. In Scotland, these children also are boarded out.

Again, there is a fourth class, whom we may designate *little nuisances*, whose naughtiness is often to be accounted for by their orphaned condition or by the neglect of parents, so that they may be classed rather with other neglected children than with criminals, and may be placed in families either directly or after a short detention in such a school as ours at Monson.* In England, such children are placed in industrial schools, and often retained there for five or six years,— a practice which seems unnecessary and undesirable. In France there is an open question whether such children may or may not be placed by the government, as dependent and neglected children are, at board or in groups with some worthy mechanic, or in farm or manual training schools.†

The general principles outlined above are not proposed to this Conference as mere abstract theories. They have been worked out of a long experience, including many mistakes and many failures as well as many solid encouragements. They are based upon a careful study of the kind of natures with which we all have to deal. These dependent or perverted young people must be strengthened in the direction of intelligent self-control and of voluntary recognition of and obedience to the laws of nature as well as to the laws of the land. We find that, in older countries than ours, some of the problems which confront us have already been solved. For instance, we recognize the frequent failure to keep our State wards contented in farming districts. We find the children who have been at board in private families in England up to their fourteenth year, in the ma-

*These children are not in any way distinguishable by the teacher from the children who have come simply on account of poverty.

† The proposal to recommend the selection of the more gifted children assisted by the State and to give them special training in trade schools, like that of Montevrain, was voted down upon the ground that these children had already received their share of the public money when placed at board, and that they were already in condition to avail themselves of all educational advantages that were open to the children of the self-supporting laborer.

jority of cases, continuing in those same families after they are free to go elsewhere. We inquire how this much desired result is obtained, and learn that their boarding places were purposely chosen in the neighborhood of a small town where some active industry is carried on, where the boy or girl may ply his trade or other occupation and continue to live in the only home he has ever known, bringing home his earnings like a child of the family. In this way, the child's often inborn taste for the excitements of a busy life will find satisfaction. Again, we may find that the boys placed out from the best reformatory schools in England, although seldom committed until after a second or third serious offence, are better contented with the places found for them than our boys here are with theirs; that they are hardier in their habits, less unreasonable in their demands, and better fitted to take their places among that portion of the laboring community where they must sooner or later find their level. A close inquiry into the management brings out the following discoveries: that their shops and school-rooms are often under 60° Fahr., never over 64°. It may be worth our while, then, to question the wisdom of keeping some of our reformatories and other public institutions at a temperature which cannot fail to make the L of a farm-house unendurable by contrast, almost as cold as the proverbial guest-chamber described by the "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," and to weigh well other possible errors resulting from the proverbial easy good-nature and lavishness of the American people.

Without imitating, we may adapt some of these methods to our different conditions; for we, in this country, certainly ought not to consider ourselves as yet too old to learn.

The following are extracts from notes taken during or soon after the visits to the schools mentioned, and will, I hope, bring before your minds, as no bare statement of theory could, the simple conditions of those methods peculiar to France and England to which I have referred: —

École d'Alembert, at Montevrain, about Fifteen Miles from Paris.

For "neglected children"* who are found to have talent for skilled work, and are there trained to clock-making, fine brass-work, cabinet-work, horticulture. They performed a fine exercise with single stick and with muskets, marched with spirit, no shuffling. Their knees

* "Enfants moralement abandonnés."

were bent at every step, and the foot well lifted off the ground. Many graduates had taken honors in the army. Dress, dark blue, double-breasted blouses, piped with red.

Mettray, in the West of France.

The boys sleep in hammocks of duck or coarse linen, large enough to wrap all round the boy. In winter, they have a mattress in the hammock. Sheets and shirts are changed once in two weeks. Forty boys in each family. Sour, weak wine, soup and bread; meat three times a week. Soup is allowed them soon after rising, before study. Breakfast at eight, then shop or farm; come in at twelve and tumble into hammocks to rest till dinner at one; at two march off to work, to drum and fife. Industries, shoemaking, blacksmithing, cold iron work, manufacture of wooden shoes. Punishments — whipping being forbidden by law in France — are locking up or gymnastic exercises kept up through the hours when other boys are working, under direction of an officer detailed for the purpose. The boys get thoroughly tired under this punishment.

Hardwicke Reformatory, near Gloucester, England.

When first established, the founder stipulated that there should be but one room for sleeping, eating, and working. The boys still sleep in hammocks. They bring all the water from the canal in hogsheads. The superintendent said, "No plumbing, no drains, no sickness." The punishment room was apparently little used.

Stoke Farm School, Stoke Works, near Birmingham.

Eighty boys. House simple in arrangements, but very pleasant. Industries as usual, with the addition of baking without oversight, if desirable, whitewashing, and gardening. Prizes are given for good conduct and for the best garden: the second year a boy can have a garden of his own. Mr. Sturge allowed me to talk with three boys who were soon to leave, and all assured me they had found it easier to behave well the third year than the first or second. Everything very plain. The boys unconstrained and manly. The master follows up very closely those who have gone out. Some are placed in small tailoring establishments, others on farms. In fact, Mr. Sturge says it is the influence of the superintendent that secures success. He

believes that the solitary imprisonment before commitment to the school is, on the whole, beneficial; for, if the boy remembers this as a punishment, he regards the school, not as a punishment, but as something better. He believes two or three years none too long for those who really need reformatory treatment.

Of 73 discharged in 1885, 1886, and 1887, there were in 1889 —:

Doing well,	59
Dead,	2
Doubtful,	3
Convicted of crime,	8
Unknown,	1
	73

The Waudsworth Reformatory, near Clapham Junction, London.

One hundred and sixty boys, nearly all committed for third or fourth offence, mostly under fifteen years of age when committed. Many had been birched by the police, and sent home on probation. Five officers resident; three who sleep outside. The superintendent, Mr. Jackson, has been on duty thirteen years. Plain building, with balcony at second story, round an enclosed yard, but not to enclose the boys, who are allowed to play on the town common once a week, often without oversight. The boys were working like so many beavers, chopping, tying, carrying kindlings, and packing them in sheds or in the cart. Others were making curtain rods or broomsticks. All agile, alert, talking while at work. Lock-up piled with potatoes, rope, etc. Superintendent said there had been but three cases of serious whipping that year. The superintendent stands at the door of the bath-room every Saturday to see each boy as he comes to bathe in the tank, and can thus discover any marks of punishment or anything else that is not as it should be; "for," he said, "a boy won't tell if his teacher has whipped him, but, in that way, I can find it out." Three times a day the boys strip to the waist and wash in basins. The gas is kept burning all night. The boys may read or write in bed till nine, or one may read aloud, but is soon reading to himself; for the rest fall asleep. They have school for two hours before breakfast, the officers believing it the best time for lessons, and not breakfasting till after the boys. They have no heat at all in their school-rooms, and it must be well below 60° there in

that damp climate. Healthier, happier boys would be hard to find. Mr. Jackson is sure the three-year boys behave better than those sent out after one year only. Rewards, never exceeding ten cents per week, are given for excellence in conduct, study, and work. Boys who have gone to work are allowed to come back to visit and report for at least three years.

Boys sent out in 1885, 1886, and 1887, reported upon 1889: —

Doing well,	135
Dead,	4
Doubtful,	2
Convicted of crime,	13
	154

There is much more that could be told of schools abroad, and many points deserving notice in schools as well as in the boarding out system in this country, all of which must be omitted for want of space.

COUNTRY HOMES FOR DEPENDENT CHILDREN.

BY ELLEN H. BAILEY, BOSTON.

The constantly increasing population of large cities, owing partly in our country to the widely open door of hospitality which is set before the immigrant, and partly to the decay of agricultural pursuits; the great gulf that exists between the circumstances and environments of those who are well-to-do and those of the laboring classes; the lack of moral responsibility and obligation which *should* be felt by every individual and by society at large,— these are all tendencies toward the creation of a class of persons that is not self-dependent, that is constantly being thrown upon the tender mercies of public or private charity. Among this class are many children, too young and too weak to contribute toward their own support, who must be cared for during a certain period of life. The question arises how best to train and educate these children that they may become self-respecting and honorable citizens of the community, contributors, not hindrances to the public welfare; and it meets us with a strength and

force that is hardly realized except by those who have some knowledge of the large number of children's homes and institutions, filled to overflowing, children's aid and relief societies, industrial schools, etc., that are found everywhere in civilized countries. (No less than forty may be found in the city of Boston alone.) These societies, schools, and institutions have done and are doing good work in the care bestowed upon the little ones committed to their charge. Proper supervision and wise and competent matrons and superintendents have prevented abuses or neglect of trusts, and much beneficent help is being rendered by them in the hour of need. But these are carried on at great expense, even without extravagance on the part of managers and directors. Moreover, the training of the institution child does not tend to individual development, under the forced and requisite obedience to the systematic rules and regulations which must prevail where from twenty to hundreds of children are cared for under one roof. Even the temporary inmate of an asylum or institution who is submitted for a short time only to such training would be better for something more akin to home care and affection during the period of dependency.

Now, the thought arises, Is not family life possible for every one of these dependent children? Not for the wayward and wilful, those in State custody; not for the deformed and diseased,—these probably must always be cared for in institutions. But there are many who would not be included in these classes, who would surely benefit by some organized method of placing children in families. This idea has been carried out by the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, and also by the Boston Children's Aid Society. The former carries on its work independent of institutions. The Boston society is fast gaining strength in this direction, and will soon cease to knock at the door of any institution to find the necessary shelter and protection for the little ones placed under the charge of the society.

If institutions there must be, let them be built upon the cottage plan. Four, five, or six little children gathered under one mother-wing in some snug home would form a happy household; and ten or a dozen such homes could be maintained at a cost not greater, surely, than a well-equipped institution that would provide for an equal number of inmates.

The temporary country outings which are provided for the poor children living in the close tenement-house districts of our large cities during the heated term of the year when schools are closed,

and street and doorstep are the daily habitation of thousands seeking relief from the stifling atmosphere of badly ventilated rooms, seem to promise that in the future *permanent* homes for dependent children may be found, where family affection and care, home training and education, shall fit the little one bereft of parental love, destitute of all that belongs to him by right of birth, for the common exigencies of life, and give him a share in the joys and delights of childhood that only a home can afford.

The benefits and good results that have accrued from such charities as the "Country Week," the "Fresh Air Fund," the "Children's Holiday Fund," etc., are a proof not only of the expediency, but the ability to furnish good country homes among farming populations for the children of the poor. And there is every reason to believe that such provision could be extended beyond the summer holiday; that, if organized methods were adopted for securing such homes, home life, home care and training, home affection, might be possible for every child who needed public protection.

It has been my privilege to be connected for the past seven years with the charity known in Boston as the "Country Week." During that time, through the effort which has been exerted, many permanent homes have been secured and visits of indefinite length obtained for children temporarily bereft.

While the object of the "Country Week," exclusively a summer charity, is *not* to secure homes either temporary or permanent for dependent children, but rather to give a summer outing, a taste of fresh air, healthful rest and pleasure to children many of them crowded in close tenement-house quarters, such a charity does very materially aid the work of institutions and societies that seek to shelter and protect the little ones.

A bit of life in the fresh, open air of the country, a taste of enjoyment amid bright flowers, green fields, and woods, the influence of a clean, well-ordered home, happy days and hours, this is what "Country Week" means for the children whose homes are in the narrow streets and alleys and in the tenement-house districts of our cities.

By far the larger number of the beneficiaries of the "Country Week" in Boston are boarded in good country homes, on farms where the home produce can be largely utilized in feeding the children, and where sufficient interest and amusement are afforded to make the days pass pleasantly and happily during the visit. Not more than six or eight children are placed at one time in a family,

except in cases where the children are so young that the mother is sent with them; and then the number is sometimes increased to sixteen, provided the accommodation is sufficient. Such an arrangement escapes the danger and unpleasantness of anything like institution life for the little visitors. They are *guests* in the family; and, while they help to amuse and care for each other, they see and share in the home life of host and hostess, and thereby learn many a lesson of cleanliness and of kindly help and forbearance that gives new thought and inspiration even to such clouded lives as are found among this class of children.

But the more truly beautiful and diviner part of this summer charity is carried on by those who, with the love of hospitality in their hearts, freely open the door of their homes and *invite* the little one to come in. Pity, which is akin to love, is felt for the poor child, overworked, underfed perhaps, missing the pleasures and delights of childhood, sharing too often the misery and wretchedness of a home darkened by intemperance; and a cordial welcome is extended, which blossoms into days of joy and happiness never to be forgotten by the recipient of such favor. When "Country Week" shall be more of this, when a thousand homes shall offer a welcome to the poor children of Boston during the summer, where there are now a hundred, *then* shall we be nearing the ideal standard of what such a charity should be.

A third branch of the work simply provides means of transportation for such as have friends and relations living in country towns, with whom they can be entertained for a short time free of expense, or even by paying a very small board themselves, if, through our charity, railroad or steamboat fare is furnished. Of course, the distance must be limited, that the average expense of boarding visitors for the ten days which are allowed is not exceeded in the amount necessary for transportation of those visiting friends.

The children who receive the benefits of the "Country Week" charity are brought to our notice by the city missionaries, the Associated Charities' agents and visitors, teachers and superintendents of mission Sunday-schools, dispensary physicians and nurses, the teachers of free kindergartens and some of the day schools, and also from the personal application of friendly visitors among the poor. In this way every poor locality of the city is pretty thoroughly canvassed, and children are selected without reference to race, creed, or color. Tolerably good behavior, however, must be guaranteed. The work

is wholly free from the taint of sectarianism. In every child sent into a country home for a vacation visit, we see a little one who needs our help; and the invitation is as cordial and the welcome as hearty to the children of one religious faith as of another. Our success is in part due to this breadth of spirit which animates all who are connected with Boston's "Country Week" charity.

It is plain to see how wide is the field of such labor. Not only are the poor children of our cities being dealt with by learning of individual needs and sorrows in the homes from which they come, there is the daily contact with noble men and women who, by friendly visiting and other means, are endeavoring to ameliorate the condition of the poor; and also the contact with lives of honest, open-hearted farmers, and their wives and children, those who can *give* their hospitality, as well as those who are ready to care for the children in the way desired for the remuneration which is offered. Most truly does work of this kind carry its beneficial effect into country as well as city life. Here is an opportunity for country people to exercise their charity and their help in solving the problems of our great cities where so many poor are gathered. With the "Country Week" visitor comes an awakening to needs never before dreamed of, a desire to join the ranks of those who see the future welfare of the race in the better education and training of the children, and are working toward this end in the great cause of humanity; and the door of hospitality opens wider to the little stranger longing for the loving care and shelter of a *home*. Our New England country towns, and doubtless other rural localities, see but little of real suffering and misery, such as is found in tenements where a family of ten is crowded into two rooms for its home life. But just through such an opportunity as is offered by the provision of these summer outings our country friends who have not well-filled purses to draw from can do a part which only they *can* do. The moral influence which is exerted in such work is of priceless value, and likely to endure.

But the severely critical find something to oppose, and declare that these temporary blessings and privileges have a deleterious rather than beneficial effect upon the child thus favored. They declare that it awakens a discontent and fosters a spirit of dissatisfaction in the mind, so that return to a poverty-stricken home — a home shorn of true affection as well as the simple comforts of existence — becomes distasteful; and the child-heart, having seen and tasted the joys of living, craves something more than it can find in barrenness and destitution.

This criticism is not wholly without foundation. A discontent with things wrong, with circumstances that are the result of evil, of ignorance, or born of negligence and despair, is *not* to be deplored. If, on the contrary, there is awakened in the mind of the "Country Week" visitor a desire for *better* things, a desire that will kindle an effort to *make* things better, of what inestimable value is the work of such a charity! To one who sees and knows, however, there come to mind innumerable instances of glad and happy greetings on the return from country visits, which show a fondness for home, however poor, and the loved ones gathered there. If discontent *is* fostered, I believe it is a righteous discontent, which, perchance, may bring forth good fruit. Here the objections to "Country Week" end.

The good influence of such temporary summer outings is surely evidence in favor of a central office or bureau in every large city, which should carry on a work, based on a plan similar to that described, to protect and shelter the class of children we are considering. The whole life of an individual man or woman depends largely upon its surroundings in childhood. Within a few weeks there has been brought to my notice the case of a four-year-old boy who had been temporarily transferred from the care of a city institution to that of a simple country home. Having paid the child's board for something more than a year, the institution authorities determined that the child no longer had a claim upon them; and it was decided to remove the little fellow to the State almshouse. The heart of the foster mother rebelled at this disposal of the child committed to her care; and, loath to lose the affection she had won, she *offers* her care and protection. And henceforth the little one will be as her own. Does not this instance point the way for us who have the welfare of the children and of our community at heart? Family life for dependent children is not merely a theoretical, but a very practical suggestion. But there is strong need of union and co-operation in all our undertakings. Public opinion everywhere must declare in favor of it before the strength and purpose of individuals and societies will unite in the effort to find parental care, parental love, for those to whom these blessings are denied. All differences of opinion regarding theological and religious belief must be set aside in the endeavor to secure *good* homes in which to place the children. The *character* of these homes is to be considered, not the denominational sect of the Christian Church which is attended by the family therein. Self-interests must be forgotten in seeking to surround the child with

conditions the most advantageous to the development of its manhood or womanhood. We are called upon to provide that which is most like to what has been lost by accident or misfortune; and, united in this purpose, we shall succeed,—divided, we shall fail. Acknowledging, then, the benefits to the poor city children of the summer visits provided for them, can we not, with earnest effort and co-operation, find a home for every child in this wide land of ours whose knock is heard at the public door, asking for shelter and protection?

CHILDREN'S HOMES IN OHIO.

BY S. J. HATHAWAY, MARIETTA, OHIO.

The establishment of civil government and the first settlement in the North-west Territory under the ordinance of 1787 effected at Marietta, in the year 1788, belong to a series of great events of that age of grand achievements. The founders of Ohio, soldiers of the Revolution, as they were, believed that education, morality, and religion as well as liberty were the enduring foundations for a State; and it was in keeping with the eminent character of these pioneers that their descendants should conceive and carry out ideas of far-reaching philanthropy; but it was the quick intuition of a Christian woman which first conceived of the Ohio plan of saving homeless children.

In the year 1857 there lived at Marietta a noble-hearted woman, a follower of him who said, "Suffer little children to come unto me, and forbid them not"; and she had felt the hopeless condition of those bright and promising children, who, through no fault of theirs, were thrown into the county poorhouse and doomed to have their early years blighted by the depressing influences of poverty, imbecility, and degradation. She was roused to action, and resolved to do what she could for their liberation. Accordingly, she selected a quiet retreat in the country, there established a home, and gathered the children from the poorhouse under her sheltering roof. Washington County came promptly to her assistance, so that, with what the county appropriated and what she could obtain in other ways, this first Children's Home flourished until the year 1866, when the public-spirited citizens of Marietta sought to make the children's home one

of the institutions of the State. A petition was prepared and presented to the legislature, which resulted in the enactment in the year 1866 of the Children's Home Law of Ohio.

The generous-hearted woman has lived to see thirty-five children's homes organized in the State. Do you ask her name? It is a name I am proud to mention in this presence. It is Catherine Fay Ewing, better known as "Aunt Katie Fay."

So long as there shall be children to save from lives of shame and degradation, so long as children's homes shall survive, so long as the great heart of humanity shall be touched with pity for a homeless child, just so long shall the name of "Aunt Katie Fay" be cherished and honored in the great State of Ohio.

The object of the Ohio system is to secure the greatest good to the greatest number. Any county in the State may by a vote of the people organize a children's home. This plan should rather be called the American plan than the Ohio plan, on account of its democratic breadth and scope. Keeping children in the poorhouses of Ohio is prohibited by law, so that, if a county will not organize a children's home, they cannot keep the children in the infirmary. They must either send them to some other county having a home or pay for their support in private families.

As a rule, the homes are not situated near or in any way associated with the county infirmaries; for we do not class these children with paupers. On the contrary, we seek to remove from them, as far as possible, the reproach of poverty.

Great care is taken in selecting a healthy and pleasant site. As a rule, they are built in the country, several miles from the county town; but experience has shown that this is a mistake. It is better to have them near the county seat, so that the children can attend the city schools and mix freely with other children, which is a desirable arrangement for several reasons. It helps to remove the feeling of caste, and renders them less liable to become institutionized.

The buildings usually consist of a good administration building, with cottages for the children.

Three trustees, who serve without pay, are appointed by the county commissioners to take charge of the children's home. These appoint the superintendent and matron, who appoint the teacher and other employees usual in such institutions. The law gives the trustees power to appoint a visiting agent whose duty it is to place out the children in private families. This is a new law, and the most im-

portant addition the system has ever had; but, strange to say, it has not yet been adopted by all the homes, especially the newer ones, which have much to learn from experience about placing out children. The older institutions, however, after over twenty years of work in placing out children under the old system have fallen in with the new law.

Under the old plan, any person who could give the requisite credentials could obtain a child. Some people want children for one purpose and some for another. Some want them for cheap servants, some to be company for them in a vacant home, or while the head of the family is away at work. Not all, by any means, come because they love children. The majority of the children placed out under the old system had a hard time of it. In fact, it was equivalent to the State taking their tender lives in charge for a time, and then ruthlessly throwing them away. After they were thus placed out, correspondence was depended on for information as to their progress and condition; and this, to say the least, cannot always be depended on for prompt and accurate information. Often the child so placed will do well. That is true where the child and his surroundings happen to be favorable, but these accidents of congeniality of temperament of child and foster parents are oftener the exception than the rule. Sometimes the foster parents and the child become attached to each other; and, just as the child begins to give promise of becoming a good citizen, the vicious and depraved relatives, in spite of all that can be done to conceal his whereabouts, will seek him out, entice him away, and so back he goes to vile associates in the dregs of society,— a lost life.

The new law changes all this. Now the State becomes the chooser of a home for the child. The visiting agent goes into a distant State and selects a healthy locality, usually a rich farming community. Here he seeks out families of moral and religious proclivities, for such are not difficult to find; and, having ascertained as nearly as possible what kind of a child each family would like, he returns to the home and selects, as near as he can, the children desired. A visiting agent needs to be a pretty good judge of human nature. Next to the superintendent, he is the most important officer in the institution, and should command a good salary. Money spent in employing a capable visiting agent in placing out the children wisely and successfully will be found to be the best invested money in the institution. After he has selected the children, he secures his railroad

passes. All the railroads, if approached in the right manner, will furnish free transportation. Railroad men, as a rule, are glad to help on such hopeful charities as this.

The children are thus placed in private families far from the reach of vicious relatives and from the history of their early years, which is often better forgotten than remembered. Now begins the best work of the visiting agent, providing the theory of the law is carried out. At least once a year he visits each group of children, and by actual observation finds out how they are getting along, whether any are being ill treated or worked too hard, sent to day school and Sunday-school, and so on. If the foster parent and child are not suited to each other, changes are made until the right place is found; for it is capable of demonstration that "for every homeless child there is a childless home," and sooner or later the right home will be found if the agent is faithful to his trust. And so the child is followed up until he has become a good citizen or has been absorbed in the community. Thus does the State, standing *in loco parentis*, do all that can be done to help the homeless child to an honorable career.

As far as the internal management of children's homes in Ohio is concerned, it is not essentially different from similar institutions elsewhere. Each home has a school, and some have kindergartens. Unless the home is near a city or village where the children can attend the public schools, the teaching is done at the home.

No attempt is made to teach trades. It has been found impracticable. They stay too short a time at the home to do much at a trade. Besides that, industrial training requires a costly plant and more instructors than are provided for in an ordinary children's home.

After all, is it not better to place the little fellows out as soon as possible in good families, and let them take their chances at trades as other children do? All boys and girls cannot be fitted with trades. All are not suited to mechanical pursuits. To obtain the best results, they must be allowed to choose for themselves, the same as other children.

The Marietta Children's Home for the first fifteen years of its existence was the model for all the others in Ohio; but of late years, since the other homes have attained to such excellence, it is hard to tell which is the model and which the imitation.

The trustees and superintendents of the children's homes and orphan asylums of Ohio hold an annual convention. Last year was

the eighth. At these meetings, the best means and methods of saving homeless children, whether by public or private charity, are discussed. Some ideas in regard to conducting children's homes have become well settled in Ohio.

First.—It is a mistake to herd a large number together in one home. The fewer there are, the better. A little child should have as much personal contact as possible with some person able to instruct and give a parent's imprint to its growing faculties; but, with a hundred children packed together in one children's home, this cannot be done.

Second.— The children's home is simply the turning-point from a lower to a higher life, a temporary shelter, until a permanent home can be found; but in many cases, from vile associations, the child may have become so inoculated with contagious disease, filled with false ideas of life and proneness to profanity, that it may be found necessary to detain him in the home until the discipline of the institution has fitted him for the companionship of decent people. Indeed, no child should be sent out until he has ceased to be a menace to a good family. We should always have a proper respect for those benevolent people who throw open their homes to these little wanderers. We are bound to protect our patrons from contagion, mental as well as physical.

Third.— Inexpensive buildings are just as effectual as grand and extravagant structures. Children brought up amid very fine and expensive surroundings are not likely to be contented with the humble way of living of some future foster parent, who may live in a comfortable but not elegant house. Cottages of one story, with plenty of room around, are the best. Cottages like these are not only very convenient, but easily kept wholesome, answer every purpose, and are safe in case of fire.

Fourth.— You cannot always trust people who come after children to do just as they promise. They will not send the child to school nor to church and Sunday-school. They will work the little fellows too hard. They will abuse them at times shamefully. They will become dissatisfied, and, instead of reporting to the children's home, will turn the child over to a neighbor; and the neighbor in turn, as well as the child, becoming dissatisfied, the outcome is a common tramp. The cure for all this is the visiting agent, who will periodically visit every child placed out and maintain personal supervision over him until he becomes of age.

The Ohio system is supported wholly by taxation, and it is a tax which the people pay willingly. I have the first grumbler yet to hear who was dissatisfied with the tax. Indeed, why should the State assume the support of one class of dependants, like the aged and infirm, and turn over the dependent children to private charity? There are many beneficent institutions in our large cities devoted to saving homeless children, and there are a large number of noble men and women doing a grand work through these institutions which could be done in no other way. Let us thank God for this, but these do not reach the country generally. The thousands of small cities, villages, and rural communities all over the land need the help of just such institutions to take charge of their dependent children; but they cannot share in their benefits. These only reach a limited circle at best. Who, then, shall care for the dependent children of the State? Who but the people themselves in their collective capacity, thus distributing the burden over the whole community?

If the State undertakes this work at all, it must make it possible and easy for a dependent child, from any locality, no matter how remote, to be placed in a children's home, and this, too, without any great amount of red-tape or delay; yet how few States acknowledge this responsibility! Most of them do not distinguish between paupers and dependent children; both are consigned to the poorhouse.

Eighteen States, however, according to the last report of this Conference, have provided by law for saving dependent children. These are California, Connecticut, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Texas, Wisconsin, and the District of Columbia. Twenty-four States have no such laws, at least none are reported.

Truly, here is a wide field for the benevolent and public-spirited people of those States to do a great work. The objective point in every State is the legislature, but it must be sustained by public sentiment. Can any one doubt that the people would sustain the legislature of any State in passing such laws? The people's hearts are always right when the fate of a homeless child is at stake.

IX.

Juvenile Delinquents.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY T. J. CHARLTON, CHAIRMAN,

SUPERINTENDENT INDIANA REFORM SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

Four months ago, when I was requested to serve as chairman of this committee, I at once prepared a circular letter, soliciting of the reformatories of the land a full report of all their various industries, and especially requesting a list of those which were productive of a revenue. The prompt and full responses that came from every one of the superintendents surprised me. It was no longer a question with me, "How can I secure the requisite information as to the industries pursued in all these State and city reformatories?" but the question arose, "How can I abbreviate these reports so as to present them to this Conference?"

After a careful study of each report, I decided to cull from the separate lists of industries those that were common to nearly all of the reformatories of the country, and to designate them as "general industries." I did this, and in this report these are enumerated but once, and are not mentioned thereafter in the individual reports.

The following are "general":—

1. Washing and ironing for inmates and officers.
2. Cooking for same.
3. Bread and cake baking for same.
4. Tailoring, to supply the wants of inmates.
5. Painting and frescoing, limited to the needs of the school.
6. Shoemaking and shoe-repairing for inmates.
7. Carpentering, limited to the needs of the school.
8. Floriculture, limited to the needs of the school.
9. Caring for stock, limited to the needs of the school.

10. Farming and gardening, limited to the needs of the school.

11. Instrumental music, the school band.

12. Steam and gas fitting, limited to the needs of the school.

The above twelve industries are found in nearly every fully developed reformatory. This is as it should be.

Most of the reports of superintendents were accompanied by personal letters and by copies of their last annual reports. A vast amount of special information was thus obtained, which, although of great value, cannot be condensed into this report. By omitting all industries designated as "*general*," I have been enabled to report the entire reformatory industries of the land.

(1) Superintendent Israel C. Jones, of the New York House of Refuge, on Randall's Island, the veteran superintendent of the oldest reformatory in the United States, reports *printing* and *hosiery manufacture* as the chief industries of the boys that are productive of revenue. The labor of the girls is confined to domestic and household duties.

(2) Superintendent J. Hood Laverty, of the Philadelphia House of Refuge, reports the labor of the girls as limited to domestic duties; but the industries of the boys which are productive of revenue are: —

1. Cane-seating. 2. Brush-making. 3. Tailoring. 4. Shoemaking.

This school is now in a transition state. Its board of managers has decided to abandon the old home, occupied since 1827, in the heart of the crowded city, and to remove it to "Glen Mills," some twenty miles out in the country. A valuable farm of 385 acres has been purchased, and several elaborate buildings for the use of the school have been erected. All this was done by the princely donations of some of the members of the board of managers and other philanthropists of Philadelphia. To supplement this, the great State of Pennsylvania has appropriated $750,000 to complete and properly equip this magnificent home. The eyes of all the people of the land are turned to this school, fully expecting from it the evolution of the best appliances and the best methods. I disparage no other school when I predict for this great reformatory, with such magnificent support, a future career second to none other in the country.

(3) Although working with an older class of delinquents, we claim as one of us Superintendent Z. R. Brockway, of the great New York Reformatory, at Elmira. Of the twenty-five industries enumerated, the following seventeen are not on the "general" list: —

1. Bricklaying. 2. Plastering. 3. Stone-cutting. 4. Machine work. 5. Blacksmithing. 6. Plumbing. 7. Brass-finishing. 8. Pattern-making. 9. Wood-carving. 10. Stenography and type-writing. 11. Barbering. 12. Printing. 13. Iron-moulding. 14. Cabinet work. 15. Upholstering. 16. Wood-turning. 17. Hard-wood finishing.

The first eleven are instructive, and the last six are productive of revenue. It does appear that Mr. Brockway has solved the industrial problem for his inmates, and solved it about right.

(4) Superintendent Irving Washington of the State Industrial School, of Rochester, N.Y., enumerates the following industries not classed as "general": —

1. Blacksmithing. 2. Wood-turning. 3. Pattern-making. 4. Iron-moulding. 5. Machine work.

All of these are instructive, no effort being made to make the labor productive of revenue. It is well known to the members of this Conference that the appliances and industrial methods in operation at Rochester are the very best. The work of the Manual Labor Training Shops there is well known to rank along with that of the best Manual Labor Training Schools of the land.

(5) Following in the wake of the Elmira Reformatory, the great State of Pennsylvania has established at Huntington her "State Industrial Reformatory." To preside over it, she called from the prison work at Joliet, Ill., Colonel R. W. McClaughrey. Although yet in its infancy, it has already introduced: —

1. Blacksmithing. 2. Chair-making and machine work. 3. Electrical work.

Chair-making is the chief productive industry. The country expects great things in the way of trades-teaching and reformatory work there.

(6) Superintendent Quay of the State Reform School at Morganza reports, in addition to the "general" industries, brush-making as being the principal productive industry.

(7) I now come to the report of Superintendent George E. Howe, who for thirty-two years has had charge of reform schools. As the superintendent of the Ohio State Industrial School for boys near Lancaster, he developed the "cottage system" so successfully as to make it the most popular system for reform schools in country districts. For many years past, he has had charge of the State Reform School at Meriden, Conn., where he has transformed what

was a juvenile prison into a most attractive home, established as far as possible upon the cottage system.

At Meriden the productive industries are: —

1. Raising of small fruits, which produce several hundred dollars yearly.

2. Two hundred and twenty-five boys work at cane-seating, which brings an annual income of about $8,000.

(8) Hon. John J. Rodigue, actuary and manager of the great New York Catholic Protectory, the largest reformatory in this country, sends the following report of industries: —

Male Department.

1. Shoemaking. 2. Printing. 3. Electrotyping. 4. Chair-caning and varnishing. 5. Knitting of hosiery and underwear. 6. Stenography and type-writing. 7. Instrumental music. 8. Machine work.

Female Department.

1. Shirt-making. 2. Dressmaking. 3. Kid-glove sewing. 4. Embroidering. 5. Stenography and type-writing. 6. Household duties.

The annual revenues of these various departments are as follows: —

1. Chair factory,	$4,726.88
2. Knitting,	9,500.00
3. Printing,	1,000.00
4. Shoemaking,	7,620.96
5. Glove-sewing,	1,838.49
6. General sewing,	6,242.21
Total,	$30,928.54

In its productive energies this great reformatory surpasses all others.

(9) Superintendent J. C. Hite, of the State Industrial School for Boys, near Lancaster, Ohio, reports the various industries pursued by the boys in addition to those classed as "general" as being: —

1. Fruit-raising. 2. Telegraphy. 3. Knitting. 4. Brush-making.

All these except telegraphy are productive. This school is the oldest in the country established on the "cottage plan." Its great success undoubtedly did much to cause the rapid growth of that system of organization.

(10) Major Henry Oliver, superintendent of the Cincinnati House

of Refuge, after enumerating the various "general" industries, reports these in addition thereto: —

1. Carpentering, joining, and wood-carving. 2. Printing. 3. Manufacture of tinware.

The last-mentioned industry is productive of revenue; but the great aim of each and all is to instruct. This school has a very excellent Manual Labor Training School, in all kinds of wood-work.

(11) Superintendent Caldwell, of the Louisville Industrial School of Reform, reports the usual full line of industries. He is the veteran reformatory superintendent of the West. For more than a quarter of a century he has labored to teach boys and girls such handicraft as would enable them to earn an honest livelihood, when thrown upon their own resources. Just now the industrial departments are suffering somewhat from the loss of its large workshops, which were torn down to make room for the boulevard projected through a portion of the grounds. With all these drawbacks, the net revenue of the industrial departments last year amounted to $7,200. Printing and wood-working, as well as chair-caning, are kept prominent. Mr. Caldwell, looking over the industrial needs of our boys, says: "We have to-day, practically, no apprentice system. By the action of trades-unions and labor-leagues, our apprentice laws are a dead letter. Foreign tradesmen may come to our shores and be admitted to all the rights and privileges of these unions, but the young men of America will find the doors closed to them."

(12) The Illinois State Reform School for Boys at Pontiac, Dr. J. D. Scouller, superintendent, reports shoemaking as the chief productive industry. About two hundred boys are employed in this department, working upon the "State account" plan. No school in the country has a more successful shoe manufactory than that at Pontiac.

(13) Professor C. A. Gower, of the State Reform School for Boys, of Michigan, reports all the "general" industries, and adds printing, plumbing, and chair-caning, the last only being productive of revenue.

(14) Superintendent William H. Sleep, of the Wisconsin Industrial School for Boys at Waukesha, reports as sources of revenue: —

1. The overproductions of the farm. 2. Manufacture of boots. 3. Manufacture of socks.

Superintendent Sleep in all industrial matters is a "wide-awake"

superintendent. In former years this school maintained one of the largest shoe factories of any reformatory in the country.

(15) Dr. J. F. Buck, of the State Reform School of Kansas, situated in Topeka, reports as yet no shop industries save those for institution purposes. Farming and gardening are the chief outdoor industries. No attempt is made to earn money for the State.

(16) Superintendent Ira C. Otterson, of the New Jersey State Reform School for Boys at Jamesburg, reports as the chief productive industries the following: —

1. Brickmaking. 2. Blacksmithing. 3. Printing. 4. Carpet-weaving. 5. Brush-drawing and finishing.

Mr. Ottersen makes the pertinent suggestion that, no matter how well we teach trades to boys, if they return to *filthy homes*, it will all be lost. Truly, the workshop can do much to make a boy feel more or less "self-confidence"; but it avails but little if he returns to such environments.

(17) The Reform School of the District of Columbia, situated on the summit of Mount Lincoln, overlooking the National Capitol, is not so large as some State schools; but, under its indefatigable superintendent, G. A. Shellenberger, it is second to none in its industrial work. Chair-caning has been abolished, and paper-box-making substituted. Farming is highly developed. Stock-raising is a unique feature, and probably nowhere in the country are the small fruit industry and floriculture so well managed.

(18) Superintendent S. A. Andrews, of the Vermont Reform School at Vergennes, reports the industries for the girls to be of a domestic character. For the boys, chair-caning is the chief productive employment. The superintendent reports his disapproval of this industry, and favors an industry which is more suitable.

(19) The State Reform School of Maine, situated at Cape Elizabeth, one of the suburbs of the city of Portland, through Superintendent J. R. Farrington reports farming, gardening, and cane-seating as the chief productive industries.

(20) The St. Mary's Industrial School of Baltimore, Brother Dominic, superintendent, through Dr. R. H. Goldsmith reports the same "general" industries, and gives as productive of revenue: —

1. Tailoring, employing 135 boys. 2. Printing, employing 20 boys. 3. Stocking-making, employing 115 boys.

(21) The Baltimore House of Refuge, R. J. Kirkwood, superintendent, and Joshua Levering, president of the board, report tailoring and basket-making as the chief productive employments.

(22) The new State Reform School for Boys, at Boonville, Missouri, L. D. Drake, superintendent, has accomplished much since it was organized. Aside from the multiplicity of duties, such as grading, drainage, and tree-planting, it has conducted a successful brick-yard. Its chief industries for some years to come will be those connected with farming, gardening, and fruit-growing.

(23) The Lyman School for Boys, Westboro, Mass., T. F. Chapin, superintendent, reports (1) chair-caning, (2) heel-cutting from scrap leather, as the two chief sources of revenue.

(24) The State Industrial School, Golden, Col., through Superintendent Hatch, reports farming and shoemaking as the two chief sources of revenue.

(25) The "Lone Star State" has established at Gatesville what is termed the "Texas House of Correction and Reformation," with Benjamin E. McCulloch as superintendent. He reports that the school was opened Jan. 3, 1889, with twenty-five boys from the State Prison. This number has since more than trebled. The farm last year produced $1,800 worth of cotton, while $700 was realized from the labor of the boys on the neighboring plantations. Workshops are soon to be established. Thus Texas has "wheeled into line" before some of the older States, which still (let it be spoken to their shame) crowd their prisons with boys of tender years.

(26) The refuge on Deer Island in Boston Harbor, James R. Gerrish, superintendent, reports only domestic employment for all inmates. The chief aim seems to be to impart a good common-school education.

(27) South Dakota, before she assumed Statehood, established an industrial school at Plankinton, with C. W. Ainsworth as superintendent. Although in its infancy, it already displays much enterprise. Printing is taught, as also are the varied "general" industries. Greater shop industries will soon be established.

(28) Tennessee followed in the wake of Texas, and established the Tennessee Industrial School at Nashville, with W. C. Kilvington, superintendent. Gardening, farming, chair-making, and floriculture are listed as productive industries. Printing is also taught.

(29) The House of Refuge at St. Louis, Mo., through Superintendent Shaffer, reports shoemaking and chair-caning as its two productive industries.

(30) The Iowa Industrial School at Eldora, through Superintendent B. J. Miles, reports as productive of revenue: —

1. Farming. 2. Gardening. 3. Stock-raising. 4. Broom-making.

This prosperous school, like the great State that supports it, is devoted to agricultural pursuits.

(31) Superintendent John T. Mallalieu of the State Industrial School of Kearney, Neb., reports that the State has recently, at a cost of $30,000, established extensive shops, where will be taught: —

1. Printing. 2. Stenography and type-writing. 3. Telegraphy. 4. Blacksmithing.

These will be for the sole object of instruction. The farm is the only source of revenue. The State of Nebraska is fully abreast of the older States in the work of reformation.

(32) The State Industrial School of New Hampshire, situated at Manchester, through Superintendent J. C. Ray reports fifty boys and ten girls engaged in the manufacture of hosiery, and twenty-five boys in chair-making. These are the two productive employments.

(33) Through the kindness of Governor Riggs and Secretary Palmer of the Ferris Industrial School of Wilmington, Del., I learn that, in the absence of a State reformatory, John Ferris, upon his death, endowed this young and growing enterprise. As yet, farming is the chief employment of the boys there.

(34) Rhode Island, the smallest of all the States in area, but least in nothing else, has her reformatory for boys at Howard, R.I., known as the "Sockanosset School for Boys," with Franklin H. Niebecker as superintendent. Brush-making is the only productive industry.

(35) The same State has her girls' reformatory known as the "Oakland School for Girls," at the town of Cranston. The thirty-seven girls are employed in domestic duties. No attempt is made to provide a revenue. The education of the girls is the chief aim.

(36) I should have mentioned earlier that young giant of the Pacific slope, the State Reform School for Juvenile Offenders, which is being erected at Whittier, Cal., with Dr. Walter Lindley as superintendent. It will, when erected, compare with the largest school in the country. Dr. Lindley reports that gardening, blacksmithing, orange-growing, olive-raising, and growing of figs and raisins will be productive industries.

(37) The Preston School of Industry in the same State will be for the training of *criminal boys* and *young men.*

(38) The State Reform School of Minnesota.

(39) I have reported the industries of the foregoing thirty-seven boys' reformatories more fully than perhaps I should have done in

justice to the reformatories for girls. But you will notice, from the reports from reformatories for girls, most of them are confined to domestic duties. The Indiana Reformatory for Girls at Indianapolis, Ind., through Miss Sarah Keely, superintendent, reports as productive industries: 1. Cane-seating. 2. General sewing. 3. Dressmaking. 4. Laundry work. In one respect this school is a pioneer, that of being under the exclusive control of women from its organization. Its great success has proven that it was not an unwise step.

(40) The State Industrial School for Girls at Trenton, N.J., Mrs. Mary A. McFadden, matron, reports that the industries of that school are confined to the usual domestic industries suitable for girls. The dairy and garden produce some revenue to the State.

(41) The State Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster, Mass., Mrs. L. L. Brackett, superintendent, reports its industries as limited to "woman's work." Mrs. Brackett writes that "the trustees have tried various productive industries from time to time, but have decided that such employment cannot be carried on without interfering with the complete separation of families, with "placing out" of girls as soon as possible, and with the willingness of the girls to work contentedly in plain families.

Mrs. Brackett believes that placing the girls out in good families is far better than detaining them a long time in the institution.

(42) Miss N. C. Hurst, superintendent of the Girls' Industrial School at Milwaukee, reports that they carry on a custom department for: 1. Washing. 2. Plain and fancy sewing. 3. Crochet-making. 4. Dressmaking. 5. Knitting. 6. Laundry work. While these are all occasionally remunerative, the laundry is the chief source of revenue.

(43) Superintendent W. G. Fairbanks, of the Connecticut Industrial School for Girls at Middletown, writes that the manufacture of paper boxes is the only productive industry. He further states that they have discarded the use of machinery in washing, for the reason that they believe the girls should learn to wash and iron by hand. He further reports that the "custom-sewing department," formerly carried on for revenue, has been converted into "a sewing school," with the sole object of instruction, not money.

Mr. Fairbanks had seventeen years' experience in charge of the Vermont Reform School before he assumed the charge at Middletown. He therefore speaks the result of a long experience.

(44) The Michigan Industrial Home for Girls at Adrian, Mich.,

through its superintendent, Miss Margaret Scott, reports the industries as confined chiefly to woman's work, but that brush-drawing is the chief productive industry that lasts all the year, and that straw sewing is productive of revenue for three months.

In addition to these special reports from institutions having the care of juvenile delinquents, I solicited reports from several of the most progressive "houses of correction" and "State prisons"; but I found that I was trespassing upon the work of another committee. So I have reluctantly been compelled to omit their reports. I also sought reports from the best "orphan asylums" of the land, but for a similar reason these reports must be omitted. I asked the views of several of the most active members of this Conference, especially those connected with State Boards of Charities. From these I have received many valuable contributions.

Lucius C. Storrs, secretary of the State Board of Charities of Michigan, wrote condemning many of the industries pursued, and for his section favored most of all fruit-growing and printing.

Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch, who in Indiana is without a peer in charity work, and to whom is due the passage of the law establishing the Indiana State Board of Charities, in his reply advances this thought: "As far as possible, all work should look toward economic value. Pounding with an axe on a log may be work, but no self-respecting tramp would take a week's contract. 'No chips fly.' But, on the other hand, the productive must be secondary to the educative."

I also acknowledge a valuable contribution from the Hon. William Donovan, of the Board of Trustees of the Michigan Reform School. After a careful investigation of the industries of the reformatories of the several States, he suggests that the method of teaching bricklaying and plastering by working upon temporary walls, which are to be torn down as soon as completed, is not a correct one. He considers that it discourages a boy to know that, as soon as he completes his work, it will be torn down. Mr. Donovan favors printing as the best trade to teach boys. I trust that his objections will be fully discussed. I know that upon *permanent* walls these great trades can be successfully taught. In the Indiana Reform School for Boys, we have demonstrated this for the past ten years. I take it for granted that most reformatories require more buildings to give room for various purposes. All such buildings should be erected by the school itself; and the work of erection should be *made* itself *a school* for the

teaching of trades. We all know that to bring in a body of strange workmen to do such work is a great injury to a school. Such workmen, as a rule, are not in sympathy with reformatory work. Their very presence is an evil. Therefore, I hold that our own boys should, *under proper instruction, erect all buildings.* They should lay every *stone*, every *brick;* and every piece of carpenter work should be their handiwork. *No* man should be employed to do what one of our boys can be taught to do. Believing this, we have done all such work by the labor of our boys. Year after year we have carried on brick-yards, averaging in many of those years at least a million of bricks. With these we have erected buildings, thereby teaching the boys useful trades. During last year our boys made and laid in walls nearly a million of bricks. Besides this, they erected an extensive steam plant, operated by four-hundred-horse-power boilers. In order to make such work a success, the superintendent must be omnipresent, to see that at each step proper instructions are given. The best way to learn to do a thing is by "doing it." I have heard of reformatories where daily instruction is given in bricklaying in "temporary walls," but where, when a permanent building is to be constructed, the work is always given out to contractors. When permanent walls are to be erected, the boys must "keep hands off." This reminds me of a neighbor lady who forbade her boys "going near the water until they learned to swim." Theory is good, but practice is better. Give the boys a chance. Let them drive all teams, let them milk the cows, let them saw and split all the wood.

I gladly acknowledge the receipt of wise suggestions from ex-President William P. Letchworth, of New York. To ascertain his ideas, one must visit the Reformatory at Rochester, the industries of which he shaped, and where his views are in operation. He was one of the pioneers of this country in advocacy of making the reformatories schools for the instruction of delinquent youth, instead of producing the paltry dollar. When we reflect that we are living at the close of the nineteenth century, it does seem strange that any State should strive to make its reformatories in any sense self-supporting. We never ask such results of our public schools. Why, then, should it be demanded of reformatories? Our pupils come to us without culture. Very few of these have ever enjoyed any intellectual culture. They are deficient in moral training. These must be kept paramount.

Among the numerous responses to my inquiries, I am happy to re-

port that of one familiar to this Conference, Mr. J. H. Mills, of Thomasville, N.C. From his surroundings he recommends "printing and caring for stock" as the industries most in demand. Mr. R. H. Dawson, of the Convict Bureau of Alabama, makes a similar report. In order to introduce the most advanced thought on the industrial problem of the age, I wrote to the presidents of the leading manual labor training schools of the land. Their responses were prompt and full.

1. The Baltimore Manual Training School, under the control of the Public School Commissioners, ranks among the best in the country. The use of tools is most carefully taught. While it does not teach trades, it lays the foundation for trades. John D. Ford of the Engineer Corps of the United States Navy is in charge.

2. The Manual Training School of Washington University, St. Louis, Mo., C. M. Woodward, director, reports that that school teaches the use of tools, that it gives two hours' shop-work in each day, that pupils must pursue the course three years to complete the curriculum, and that preference is given to poor boys. He closes his remarks on the unfitness of modern shops for the teaching of trades with these words: "In a factory, intellectual life and activity are not aimed at. Its sole object is the production of articles for the market. In a manual labor training school, everything is for the benefit of the boy. He is the most important thing in the shop. He is the only article to be put upon the market."

I have never heard any one express in such choice words what should be the true mission of the industrial departments of reformatories. Truly, truly, our boys and our girls are the chief objects to be kept in view. When the paltry dollar is made a consideration, it is a calamity to our schools. It has been said that "words fitly spoken are like apples of gold in pictures of silver"; and I thank Professor Woodward for speaking those fitly chosen words.

3. President C. A. Waldo, of the Rose Polytechnic Institute of Terre Haute, Ind., in answer to my request for his views as to the labor best suited for juvenile delinquents, replied in these words: "In general, I would seek to find the natural aptitude of each boy, and select for each some industry requiring the exercise of these aptitudes. As far as possible, I would try to turn every boy toward those pursuits for which there is the greatest demand, and in the exercise of which there is the greatest advancement, and the rewards for which would enable him to become independent. The best safe-

guard for a boy with a delinquent record is a mind filled with wholesome thoughts. I would prefer forms of occupation in which the mind must be constantly and vigorously exercised, such as wood-work in the machine-shop or labor in the forge-room or foundry."

4. Professor J. H. Smart, president of Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind., contributed valuable thoughts on the utter inefficiency of the methods that have taken the place of the apprentice system. He considers the "picking-up" process of trade-teaching as a shameful waste of energies.

5. Professor Sylvanus Thompson, of England, writes upon this subject as follows: "Apprenticeship, with its wholesome rules, having decayed in everything but form, the lads who enter the shops are never properly instructed, but are made the drudges of the older workmen. What wonder that the boys acquire habits of idleness, that not only pursue them through the whole of their work, but, worse than this, corrupt and undermine their morals?"

For many years I have felt that these, the manual labor training polytechnic schools, were models for reformatories, as they are giving the training so much in demand in this age. As far as possible, we should do likewise. I have come to the conclusion that for "juvenile delinquents" we must not attempt so much, and yet we must do *more* than they do.

We cannot impart the high intellectual training that they secure along with their course of manual training, for the reason that they have select pupils, who have had at least eight years of school life, and who are eager to learn,— pupils who are filled with zeal to learn all that is possible; while we have those whose aspirations in life have been very different. Pupils of these manual training schools, as a rule, come from good homes; while a majority of our pupils come from "dens of infamy," having from childhood breathed the atmosphere of crime. Their boys take as examples such characters as Elihu Burritt, "the learned blacksmith"; while ours have been accustomed to regard as heroes such characters as Jesse James.

Their students have ample time to complete the three years' industrial course usually required; while ours are, on an average, with us not over two years. In this time we must give them a common-school education as far as possible. We must not stop with the teaching of the "use of tools," but must strive to teach the trades in their entirety. Furthermore, we must select those trades which require the least outlay in order to secure employment, for the reason that most of our inmates are poor.

At the head of all industries I place that of printing, which requires no outlay in order to secure employment. Moreover, it is an industry which is rapidly growing. The world seems to have gone "mad" in the publication of papers and books. Sober printers are everywhere in demand. There is one objection to this industry, however: printers on the daily press must necessarily work at night; and, in the great printing establishments of the country, moral restraints are almost wholly wanting. With all this, it is a great industry, and deservedly stands at the head of those suitable for reformatories. But it seems to be confined to the publication of small weekly papers and other documents pertaining to the school. Only a very small per cent. of our inmates can be taught this trade.

Next to printing, I place brickmaking and bricklaying. Our forests are fast disappearing. The edifices of the future will be largely made of bricks. For work in a brick-yard, no outlay is needed. For bricklaying, an outlay of one dollar will purchase a trowel and plumb. The wages in this department are greater than in most of the trades, and in this latitude the work lasts nearly all the year. In our reformatories, we can make bricks almost without cost. We can erect buildings without any expense, except for the materials, as I before mentioned. In the Indiana Reform School for Boys, we never ask the legislature for appropriations, only sufficient to provide the materials. We do all the labor ourselves. With good discipline, we find that we can teach brickmaking and bricklaying in three months better than it is usually taught outside by the picking-up process in two years. We have each year prepared from twenty to forty boys for earning good wages in these lines.

Now, as to other institution industries, take that of tailoring. Most reformatories, as they should, make their own clothing. Our tailor-shops are our pride; and yet, for some reason, but few of our inmates follow it after they are released. The same is true with most of our shoe-shops. If we confine our work to hand shoemaking, and to supplying our own needs, but few boys are required; and moreover, in this age of machinery, but few of them follow it as a business. Those best trained to carry on a shoe-shop seem to drift into other work.

Blacksmithing is one of the best of trades. Longfellow's "Village Blacksmith" is printed in nearly every language, because he was the first poet to do tardy justice to the toilers at the forge. From the

days of Tubal Cain, the first worker in iron, to the present time, the "Knight of the Forge" has been, with here and there an exception, a worthy character. Every reformatory should have its own blacksmith shop. But there is a drawback to a boy following even this trade, as it requires considerable outlay to establish and carry on a blacksmith shop.

The same objection holds true of the carpenter's trade. This, in many respects, is the most attractive of trades. It was the trade followed by our Lord and Master until he entered upon his ministry on earth. But few carpenters are ever sent to prison. There is something in it which is cheerful. A day's work by a carpenter makes more show than that of any other trade. But, as a rule, this industry is limited to the needs of the school.

In the reading of this report, you may have noticed that many of our reformatories carry on "chair-caning" shops. This is the employment most easily taught to small boys, but it is not a suitable employment for men. With us, in Indiana, we make the chair-shop a clearing-house. As rapidly as we can do so, we take boys out, and give them other employment. I must confess that I dislike this industry more than any other that has been mentioned in this report.

Our boiler-houses afford excellent opportunities to the boys assigned there; but this reaches but a few. Steam-fitting is one of the best of industries, but it is necessarily limited. Except where extensive steam plants are being erected, we can teach this trade to but a very few of our largest boys. Last year, in the Indiana Reform School, we erected a complete steam and water supply plant. In awarding the contract, we made it a condition that the entire work, under properly skilled experts, should be done by our boys. Under these experts the last year, from twenty to twenty-five of our boys worked for five months, and nearly all thoroughly mastered this trade. Most of these are now following it, and earning good wages; but henceforth we shall have no more such opportunities. Only four boys are now needed to work in the boiler-house. Work in gas and electrical works teaches useful trades, but these afford opportunities to but a few. With us, we have made all possible use of our gas plant to teach the work to boys. Some of the best gas plants of the State are in charge of our boys.

We have in our Indiana reformatories a large number of colored boys and girls. In our boys' school, we aim to teach "cooking" and "waiting on tables" and laundry work to the colored boys. Caring

for stock is listed as one of the "general" industries. We use this department to advantage, but its benefits are limited to a few. Bread and cake baking is listed as one of the "general" industries; but, for some reason, not one-fourth of the boys trained so well as bakers ever follow it afterwards.

Floriculture is a delightful occupation, and boys like it. But it seems to be followed by but few in after life.

I have necessarily confined this report to one phase of reformatory work. One conclusion impresses itself on my mind, and that is that the reformatories of our country are fully awake as to the importance of teaching our inmates some useful trade. I am gratified at the outlook in this respect. I am also impressed with the conclusion that the industries of one section are not those desirable for another section. The school at Gatesville, Tex., may employ the boys in raising cotton; while orange, fig, and raisin growing may be more appropriate for Whittier, Cal. Each section has its own special industry. This is well. But there is one department where we must all agree. It is in the moral training. He who taught as never man taught has given us a "moral standard," to which we should all approach. The training of the hand is all-important, but the training of the heart is far more important. "Keep thy heart with all diligence; for out of it are the issues of life." How true the words of Solomon! After all, we must rely upon the training of the affections for the final result of our work. We must not wholly depend upon the industrial training, important as it is. If we are but true to our duty, we shall secure this. Our boys and girls will be taught that higher teaching which comes from the Holy Bible. "By the sweat of thy face thou shalt earn thy bread" was the primal law of Eden. It is still the law of the universe. We owe it to our boys and girls to impress upon them this truth, that the "world owes no one a living." That the lazy vagrant is worse than a criminal, and deserves no mercy. This is a world for industry. It is our duty to do our part, to help the unfortunate, and to teach them how they may earn an honest living. If, after we do this, they still refuse to work, then they can never blame the State for their downfall.

If they subsequently choose a life of crime, they must abide the consequences. I believe that in this industrial training all the reformatories are very nearly abreast of the times. What is suitable at Rochester is not applicable out West. But industrious habits are everywhere alike needed. In all this life there is no room for the lazy person.

I am not a believer in that sentimentality that is disposed to overlook everything in a youthful delinquent. It is this very thing that is making thousands of youths to be criminals. What modern society needs is more of the Spartan idea that each youth should prepare to be more useful to the State. For one, I believe that love of country with loyalty to its institutions and its laws is a powerful moral sentiment that outranks most others in the reformation of character. Therefore, with all our industrial training, I would not omit teaching this.

But there is one other sentiment that must always be placed foremost. It is the religious sentiment which should ever be kept prominent in a nation's life. We should teach our boys and girls that without this there is no real reformation. The belief in a "life beyond," in the accountability of man to his Creator, cannot be too well taught to the young. When the home life fails to impress upon the young their duty to the industrial world, to their country, and to God, it falls to us to do this work. These National Conferences of Charities and Correction are working along these lines.

Only let the children of our land be taught that each one should become a producer, and not a consumer of the national wealth, that "the little brown hands" of youth should and must become the brawny ones of maturity, then, indeed, much will be accomplished.

REFORMATORIES FOR JUVENILE DELINQUENTS.

BY WILLIAM HOWARD NEFF, CINCINNATI, OHIO.

Institutions for the reformation of youth of both sexes should have a governing principle, and that principle should be Christianity. Evil and the love of evil cannot be eradicated from the heart and life, without the introduction of a superior motive, something which will control the evil tendency and change the current of thought and mode of life. Christianity is the only principle which can accomplish this result. It is able to do it. The history of the Irwin Mission in Cincinnati shows that the vilest and most degraded can be reclaimed and reformed, made honest, useful men and women, true to their families, and can be rescued from drunkenness and degradation by the power of the love of the Lord Jesus Christ. Nothing else can

do it. The lack of this governing principle is the cause of the failure of some institutions to accomplish the work of reformation. I mean true, honest, manly Christianity, not cant or hypocrisy; for in no places in the world can counterfeit religion be so easily or so mercilessly detected and exposed as in reformatories for boys and girls. These youth are shrewd, cunning, and very observing as well as very suspicious, and invariably detect the show of religion without the spirit. They quite as readily recognize the presence of humble, cheerful, unostentatious piety, and will sooner or later yield to its power. The love of the Lord Jesus Christ, when once introduced into the heart, will change the life. Next in importance to the governing principle is the personal character of the superintendent, and, we may add, of the matron.

Firmness, gentleness, good judgment, even temper, coolness, courage, intelligence, and common sense are the qualifications needed in the superintendent, in subordination to his full acceptance and practice of our governing principle, Christianity. In the matron, kindness, gentleness, motherly love, excellent housewifery, good domestic management, freedom from gossip, cheerfulness, appreciation of innocent fun and recreation, attention in sickness, all animated and ennobled by the love of the Lord Jesus, will enable her to win and retain the hearts of the youth committed to her care. There are such men, there are such women. Many of them are in our reformatories now; and the harvest they reap is abundant and blessed, for it is a harvest of souls.

The object of a reformatory is to take vicious and degraded youth and convert them into honest, respectable men and women. This is done by education,—education of the head, the hands, and the heart. Most of the youth in reformatories are ignorant, although this is not always the case. They must be instructed, generally in the very rudiments of learning. They must be taught to read, to write, to cipher. They must be instructed in geography and history, and above all in the Bible. In the best reformatories, school is held for half the day, education in some department of manual labor occupying the rest of the day.

It will be no harm to teach them singing and to give them some idea of music. The superintendent should select the teachers and all the employees, with the advice and assistance of the matron. The trustees should hold the superintendent strictly responsible for everything connected with the management of the reformatory; and

it would be very unjust to do so if he were not permitted to select his subordinates. Nepotism and favoritism should not be tolerated. They will ruin any institution into which they are admitted. The teachers should be selected for their ability to teach, not because they are the nephews or nieces or poor relatives of the directors. Every department should be filled with competent, trustworthy, conscientious employees.

Half the day should be spent in manual labor. It is useless to endeavor to make a reformatory self-sustaining. It cannot be done without sacrificing the object of the institution. The nearest approach to a self-sustaining reformatory with which I am familiar is the House of Refuge at Cleveland, Ohio, where the inmates are engaged in brush-making; but the objection to this is that it is not a pursuit in which any large number of them are likely to be engaged when they go out into the world to earn their living. It is better to instruct them in all the departments of farming and country life, especially in what might be termed the higher branches of agriculture: the raising of berries, fruits, and vegetables, the grafting of trees, the culture of flowers, the care of poultry, the making of butter and cheese; and in the mechanic arts, carpentry, blacksmithing, tinning, shoemaking, printing, and telegraphy. The girls should be instructed in all household duties, most especially in the art of cooking. I sat down once to a meal in the Industrial School for Girls at Milwaukee, Wis., where the dishes were prepared as nicely as in the most famous restaurants in the land; and the consequence was that good situations were awaiting those girls as soon as the matron was willing to send them out. It is better, I believe, to qualify both boys and girls for country life than for city life. They will be less subject to temptation, and, other things being equal, are more likely to make honest, industrious men and women in the country than in the city. Care should be taken not to discourage them. Their moral fibres will be very weak for some time, and will continually need judicious strengthening. Good food and plenty of it will be a very suitable and very satisfactory means of grace. Boys and girls are generally hungry; and the stomach nerve with them is very sensitive, and its functions, when judiciously manipulated, are very important. In all parts of our land, food is cheap and abundant; and its reformatory power is perhaps not fully appreciated. In some reformatories, every one of the officers, employees, inmates, is overworked. I have seen an air of sullenness and dejection pervading an entire institution,

which could be directly traced to the fact that everybody was worked to death. People cannot be amiable, or pleasant, or dignified, or judicious, when this state of things exists. The full measure of labor in a reformatory is the average amount of work performed in a farmer's family,— no more, no less.

A little fun for boys and girls, too, is very desirable. A good game of foot-ball or base-ball, or that old time amusement, "town ball," or lawn tennis, is very conducive to health and discipline.

A drill in marching and facings, without arms, is very desirable for boys and girls, also, and is a great safeguard in case of fire or sudden emergency.

In some cases, reformatories are used as children's homes for destitute or neglected children, who are not vicious or criminal. This is wrong. There is a taint of crime about a reformatory to which innocent children should not be subjected. Poverty is not a crime. Happily, children's homes are now so generally established that the necessity for such commingling of innocent and vicious children rarely exists, and should be removed as speedily as possible.

These views apply alike to institutions on the congregate and cottage systems. The tendency now is very generally, in new institutions, to the cottage system. It has some decided advantages in classification, home training, and the personal influence of the officers and matrons in charge of the cottages. Yet one of the best and most successful reformatories in our land, the Cincinnati House of Refuge, is conducted on the congregate system, in a building over forty years old. More really depends on the administration than on the system itself. This leads now to a few words respecting the Board of Directors. While the superintendent should select his employees, and be personally responsible for their conduct, the directors should keep a watchful and attentive supervision over the entire institution. It should be their hobby. They should aim to make it the best reformatory in the land. Their eyes and ears should continually be open to everything connected with its welfare. Especially they should always be represented, and should always send the superintendent and the matron to be present, at the National Conferences of Charities and Correction. They are not placed in office to reward friends or to punish enemies; not to serve their political party at the expense of the institution; least of all to serve their own personal interests or to make money for themselves or for their friends. They have accepted a sacred trust, and must fulfil it. It is not

desirable to change directors very often. Some of the directors of the Cincinnati House of Refuge have served continuously for twenty-six years, and the institution has been greatly benefited by their continuance in office. They should never be removed for political reasons. It requires some grace and some philosophy to retain political opponents in office; but, when the welfare of the unfortunate is concerned, it becomes a duty, and equally a duty on those thus retained, not to abuse the confidence reposed in them for party purposes. An institution thus guided and thus officered, under the advisory, supervisory, and investigatory care of a Board of State Charities devoted to its work and enthusiastic in the performance of its duties, with a governor of the State as president of the board whose ambition is to be the best governor his State has ever had,— an institution thus happily situated will accomplish great work, and show results, some thirty, some sixty, some a hundred-fold, for the welfare of the unfortunate, for the honor of the State, and for the glory of God.

JUVENILE REFORMATORIES.

BY R. H. GOLDSMITH, M.D., BALTIMORE.

The most important and, for the body politic, truly practical discussion that will occupy this noble organization during its session in our good city of Baltimore is the subject of Juvenile Reformatories.

In 1866, Archbishop Spalding, of the diocese of Baltimore, a man of large heart and practical benevolence, through his untiring efforts and with the assistance of good Father McColgan and his fellow-Catholics, organized St. Mary's Industrial School for Boys, near the city of Baltimore, as a reformatory for juveniles. The promoters of this great charity scrupulously avoided, in naming their institution, anything that might shock the sensitiveness of the community that would send its children to their care. They organized simply an industrial school, repudiated the notion that it was to be a prison, and carefully excluded all prison features from the school. Their charter authorized them to receive orphans and other destitute boys, and to bind out such children until they were twenty-one years of age. In 1869, the number of inmates reached eighty-eight, and the admissions were limited solely by want of means to support the applicants. The

fact then became patent that the institution was destined to fill an enormous void in the community,— that already the necessities of the city for such a charity were of so great proportions that no private resources could enable the board to successfully administer the school. Consequently, in 1874, the trustees resolved to change and amend their original charter so as to convert the simple charitable school into a great city and State incorporation, with all the powers and franchises of a sister institution,— the House of Refuge.

Our school became a place of refuge for unfortunates of every class, as the new law authorized the commitment of all requiring reformation. The result of this experiment was by many considered problematic, as the prominent feature of the new charter was the privilege of committing petty criminals to our custody. Sixteen years have elapsed since this grand experiment was inaugurated; and, thanks be to God, we can certify that the management of these poor, petty criminals is no more difficult than for any other class of boys.

Oh, what a history have these poor waifs! Their wrongs would melt a heart of stone. What influences arrayed them against society, what causes made them criminals? Imbecile parents, unchristian homes, intemperance, are the foundations of the downfall of our youth. Consequently, in assuming charge of youth, we know that the boy is more sinned against than sinning; and we treat him on that basis. St. Mary's Industrial School was organized as a great moral hospital, and our system of reformation proceeds on that line. We started with no special theories, no cramped methods. It was our good fortune to secure the services of a band of men who had abandoned the world and all its entanglements,— men devoted to the service of God and consecrated to the education of youth. These men, the Xaverian Brothers, meet all the requirements of our institution. Their self-sacrifice is beyond worldly praise. To them, under Providence, has been accorded the realization of the problem of successfully administering juvenile reformatories. The work and its results have satisfied the most exacting, whether public authorities or humanitarians.

The methods are simple. Christian love and forbearance make the paths of reformation pleasant to travel. Bars nor chains nor walls conquer those whom Love speedily draweth to her bosom. Our experience is that the old punitive method is exploded, that love is met by love, force by force. Consequently, we have enacted few rules for our school, and thus there are few to violate. The guided instincts of

the boys are safer than written rules. The Brothers are with them constantly, and serve as examples of moral and polite conduct. All know the imitative faculties of youth. Their brains are like surfaces prepared for photographs. Their receptivity is wonderful, and the bad images cast through the camera of their homes have poisoned their moral attributes.

A child from the very instant of its entrance to the world is almost an animal. Its mental faculties are dormant; its first sensation, cold or some discomfort. It cries, shivers, and first becomes sensible to the discomforts of life. In a few days, the blank surface of its cerebrum has the experience of its brief life recorded. It learns to know when it is comfortable; it has discovered the mother who feeds it; it looks on her with a fearless eye; it can indicate temper if you interrupt it at its meals. It loves, it fears, it dislikes. In a few words, its sensations are nearly physical, with feeblest mental phenomena. We can excite feelings, but it has no true mental perceptions. It cannot be said, at first, to see understandingly; but, as time goes on, the constant registration, of the same images enables it to see with understanding its mother or nurse or to enjoy a bright light. Repetition fixes the recollections and the child learns to remember with pleasure its mother. The pleasant recollection stops its tears, the well-known face satisfies its affection. So with all the other senses: it hears not with the faculty of hearing, but experience soon, by repetition, teaches it what is pleasurable. The mother's voice to it is always sweet: other sounds, gradually, are appreciated by it. In fact, the great majority of mental impressions come through either eye or ear. Then come touch, taste, smell, and his storehouse of knowledge begins to fill. It would be truly interesting to pass, analytically, through the years; and I advise you, my hearers, in your leisure, to examine this subject carefully.

We come now to the boy, ten or twelve years old,— period fraught with weal or woe for the welfare of youth. He is charged, like a Leyden jar, with mental impressions obtained through the influence and example of his parents. *What they are*, as a rule, *he is*. Our experience shows that in eighty per cent. of the commitments the downfall of the boy may be traced to the evil influences of the parents. Another most potent cause of their destruction is the false kindness of their mothers. An essay might be written on this branch of the subject, but I pass on. Next comes intemperance,— the curse of the world,— which fills our institutions with its victims. The

children of intemperate parents *almost surely* become criminals. All statistics unmistakably prove this assertion. Frightful thought, when this is the prevailing sin of our country! Another potent factor is that the American mechanic, by his legislation, precludes his own son from freely learning his own trade, and thus devotes him to idleness, *which is death*. A non-producer is an ulcer on the body politic, which eats to the very vitals of society. The great army of the unemployed produces the destructionists, the anarchists, and all the other dangerous combinations that afflict society.

How shall we oppose these evils? By organizing such institutions as juvenile reformatories in every State in our great country. This measurably meets the necessities of these poor unfortunates; but, as their number is legion, we can only accommodate cases most crying in their demand for assistance.

The boy is committed: the result of residence in the institution is soon apparent,— an improved personal appearance, better bearing, the loss of a certain shuffling, hesitating look, so perceptible on those at war with society, better spirits, enjoyment of the plays in recreation, promptness in working hours, and, lastly, attention to instructions. Proficiency in their work enables us to bind another tie around the young operatives. They are allowed compensation for extra voluntary labor; and the money is placed to their account in a savings-bank. When a boy has a bank-book, we look on him as almost certain to become a good and useful citizen.

We also teach our boys to consider the school *their home*. We show them that, being unfit for the city, the city has excluded them from its limits, and the only home that exists for them is the Industrial School. The good Brothers endeavor to make home pleasant by enjoyable recreations, by healthy, good home fare, by a proper celebration of festivals, and, lastly, by a good library. In a word, the gospel of love permeates every method, and is the basis of every regulation of the house. Our discipline is strictly parental.

The fundamental objects of juvenile reformatories are: first, safe-keeping; second, prevention of corruption while in the institution; third, prevention of relapse into crime. Based on these, the aim of prison reform is to protect society from offenders against its laws, to punish such offenders, and finally to convert the offender from an enemy to law and order to one of its supporters. Just so far as reformatories do these things, they are successful. Now let us see whether St. Mary's Industrial School fulfils these, the latest require-

ments of managers of penal institutions and reformatories. We have indicated our methods of management, which are the non-punitive system, the gospel of household love, religious and secular instruction, and the teaching of a good trade. We isolate the smaller inmates from the larger, and keep them under the constant supervision of a Brother.

We have sixteen trades in full operation. Our educational standard is that of the ordinary grammar school. We believe the community system best, because all are under the control of the Brothers, with no opportunity for evil, and because the good boy influences the bad. As a question of fact, the trained boys of the school largely promote order and prevent improper conduct.

Since our organization, we have had in our charge 2,746 boys, ninety per cent. of whom are a credit to any institution. Some have reached prominent positions, and all are earning their daily bread. Our laws provide that a boy shall, except in the most extraordinary cases, remain four years in the school, so that he shall be thoroughly taught his trade and receive a good English education. The law requires that the boy be made moral, receive an English education, and taught a trade. Time is required for these purposes.

The great drawbacks to our effective work are the interference of courts of law, with writs of habeas corpus, and the mistaken sympathy of parents.

Under the sworn statement of a father, or mother if the father is deceased, or the lawful guardian appointed by a court of law, a boy, after trial before a magistrate, can be committed to our school until he is twenty-one years old. This would seem to settle the whole matter; but in a few months, at the option of the parent, a writ of habeas corpus can be secured, the boy brought before court, and the singular spectacle is presented of the same parent swearing to a diametrically opposite state of facts with regard to his own child. The institution is forced into the position of fighting for the boy at considerable cost, although it had no part in his commitment. Many times, the boy is released, contrary to the judgment of the skilled officers of the institution, who vainly protest against his release. The sympathies of the judges are aroused; and, although we clearly show how the boy will be affected by his return to the community, in the majority of cases our protest is in vain. We have met this state of affairs by an array of facts which gives food for serious consideration to law officers.

We keep a record of each release granted by order of court, and the results are shown to be of bad import to the boy. He may have been committed simply as an incorrigible; he returns a criminal.

We show clearly that any interruption is to the detriment of the boy, to the injury of the State. It rarely happens that we are not compelled to begin the whole work of reformation *de novo*.

Finally, let us take the boys who have uninterruptedly served out their term of probation in the school. The hour has come for their departure from our fostering care. We can honestly say they are reformed, ready to earn their daily bread. In the old time we wished them God-speed, and sent them on their way to battle with the world. But, alas to tell! in a few months the major part returned, either moral wrecks or utterly impoverished,— the work of years undone. Here was a new problem for solution, a new burden to encounter. It became apparent that these young men, although as fully prepared for contact with the world as human regulations in a reformatory could secure, were liable to fall into evil habits, contract unsuitable acquaintances, left alone, as they were, in the struggle to gain a subsistence. We considered, after careful thought, that no father would treat his son after this fashion,— that no man who loves his offspring would, even if his son were thoroughly educated, moral, with every good quality, bid him good-by and send him into the world homeless. Oh, no! he provides him with a home, let him go where he may, softens the irregularities of his path, removes every impediment to his success. These thoughts evolved the organization of St. James Home, where we now transfer our graduates as soon as strong enough for contact with the world and competent to earn a support. The superintendent of the home secures them situations and provides them with substantial board and clothes, teaches them at night, and takes charge of their wages. This home, organized July 16, 1878, has received from that period to Nov. 30, 1889, seven hundred and ninety-one boys. They pay a moderate rate for board and clothes; and whatever wages remain are deposited in the savings-bank to their credit, to be received when they are twenty-one years old.

We regard the establishment of St. James Home as the crowning conclusion of our humane work, the convalescent hospital of our morally sick, the true finale of the long years of probation at St. Mary's Industrial School. Here we exhibit to the authorities of the city and State the result of their benevolence; here we pay them the

full amount of all their appropriations by giving them healthy, trained, vigorous young men, competent to earn an honest livelihood,— no burden, but a blessing.

To sum up, St. Mary's Industrial School is organized under the laws of Maryland as a *quasi*-public institution, with a city and State directory. The current expenses are paid by city and State. Its property owned by the trustees, and paid for by donations and the labor of the boys. The large majority of our inmates are Catholics, but at least one-third are of the various denominations; yet, under the Bill of Rights, all are permitted to worship God according to their conscience. We receive embryo criminals, strangle crime, and return to the community valuable citizens. In actual money value, we pay the city and State a hundred fold their appropriations. Their contributions are $35,000 per annum. Now, if a reformed boy earns only three hundred dollars per annum, his capitalized value is five thousand dollars. Now, last year we restored 160 boys, and consequently added to the productive labor value of the city and State $800,000, to say nothing of crime prevented, ignorance dispelled, homes made happy.

BALTIMORE HOUSE OF REFUGE.

BY R. J. KIRKWOOD, SUPERINTENDENT.

I have been asked to talk for a few minutes about "Clothing and Cleanliness in Reformatory Institutions," subjects so important in their influence that it would seem that there could be no room for discussion; yet there appears to be a diversity of opinion as to quantity, quality, and style of the former, and as to the best methods of obtaining the latter,— yea, even as to what constitutes the latter; and then, if you will permit a liberal — a Biblical — application of the term, we have to consider moral clothing and moral cleanliness, not only of the pupils of reform schools, but of the officers and teachers as well.

It appears to your speaker that there can be nothing too good for a soul, which the Master Reformer declared to be of more value than the whole world, that the clothing for and the surrounding of the soul and body for which he gave the infinite price of his own life should be such as to elevate and ennoble and refine it.

In our efforts at economy, are we not very liable to forget the estimate Christ placed upon the body as well as upon the soul?

Do not children drink in forms and habits of thought and mode of expression and bearing of person from those with whom they come in contact at work and elsewhere as well as from the teacher in the school-room? And, in this way, are not all officers of a reform school potent teachers? If this be so, should not officers and teachers be men and women who have themselves been cleansed in the precious blood of Christ, and who are clothed in his righteousness, and who are filled with his spirit?

Is it not false economy, and an act of injustice to the pupils, and inconsistent with the claims and object of the work, to employ any others? But more directly to the matter of clothing the body. There are two general methods, and much can be said in favor of each; and each involves two general systems,— the Family and the Military systems.

Who ever saw a family uniformed? Now, if we are to have a family, let us have a *family*, with father and mother and children, each appropriately dressed with color and style befitting the individual, and cultivate the art of personal adornment and a manly and womanly individuality; and the more effectively to do this, as well as to cultivate becoming modesty, let each child have its own room, furnished with neat and comfortable cot, clothes-cupboard, wash-stand and mirror, comb, brush, and nail-brush, and two or three places for hanging pictures. Permit them to talk freely at the table, father and mother being present to direct and control the same, and to instruct them in the amenities of refined life.

Is not this system the proper one for younger and less vicious children? For those older and more vicious should we not have military schools, with rigid military discipline?

It matters little, we think, whether the barracks be in one large building or in several smaller ones, so that you secure to each cadet his own room, in order to foster self-respect, individuality, and modesty, and to secure better sanitary conditions. A mingled atmosphere is uncleanly and unhealthy; and we claim that, however complete the system of ventilation, it is not possible to secure so pure an atmosphere for each individual in the congregate as in the separate room system, and that the contrast in the moral atmosphere is still greater in favor of the room for each individual.

I hear the word "economy." I grant you that buildings thus con-

structed cost more; but, if that objection has not been already answered, we may allude to it again. As to the quality of material for clothing, both in the family school and the military school. Does not good clothing foster self-respect and cultivate neatness, and does not inferior clothing have the reverse effect? Will not a child, as well as those of older growth, take better care of good clothes than of inferior ones?

Here economy comes in with other reasons for better clothing. It is also cheaper to make *one* good suit instead of making *two*, the material of which costs as much as the one.

Is not abundant underclothing one of the essentials of cleanliness? Are we not apt to use a false economy just here? Can cleanliness of body, becoming self-respect, and health, be secured without abundant underclothing, with frequent changes of the same, accompanied by the bath? If so, your speaker has much to learn in the matter, and will thank any one for light on the subject. We think all children should be taught practically the importance of the bath, and the change of all the clothing that comes in direct contact with the body. That this should be done at least once a week, and not less frequently than twice a week in warm weather. Will not every physician, and every moral physician, sustain this opinion? Is not cleanliness very closely related to morality? Does it not lead in that direction?

Is it not economy to surround the unfortunate, and especially unfortunate children, whether in the reform school or in asylums for special classes, with all influences that will tend to elevate their thoughts and stimulate their desires for that which is pure and noble and refined? We hear some murmur something about lifting children above their sphere. Why, my dear friends, is it not the very object of all our efforts to lift unfortunate ones above their former level, to lift them as high as we can, even into pure, refined, intellectual manhood and womanhood, into Christ-likeness? And, in so far as we fall short of this, do we not fail in just that measure?

Is there any danger of lifting a soul too high that may, and we hope and pray will, shine in eternal glory with the Father and elder Brother in that home which is beyond our conception in grandeur?

We sometimes hear, and from sources that surprise us very much, that there is danger of raising the tastes and ambitions of the unfortunate so high that they will resort to questionable and dishonest means to gratify those tastes, and, therefore, we should be careful to not foster taste and refinement.

In other words, they condemn that which is good instead of supplying another good; namely, careful and thorough instruction in honest, skilful labor, which supplies the means for gratifying refined natures.

Friends, do not condemn the good wheel of your side-wheel steamer for throwing her out of her true course: repair the defective wheel. Finally, as to the economy of all this. When we are educating children, morally, intellectually, physically, and mechanically, so that they become law-abiding, intelligent, large-hearted citizens, who add to the wealth of the State by their intellect and trained muscles, are we not economists of the highest order?

X.

Imbeciles.

THE MORAL IMBECILE.

BY DR. I. N. KERLIN, ELWYN, PA.

An experience of thirty years in the care and training of feeble-minded children has brought to my observation a group of cases quite distinct in their symptoms of derangement, and requiring forms of discipline quite unusual as compared with those applicable to the children ordinarily recognized as idiotic. Two of these, studied twenty-five years ago, have been followed by experiences with others, so that now in a population of 740 inmates we differentiate 16 as belonging to this special group and 90 others who merge into it.

Besides these who have been under daily study and discipline, many more have been brought to our knowledge through correspondence,—a correspondence revealing the agony and unrest of as many homes, caused by the baneful and incomprehensible misconduct of certain children in whose interest the most pathetic appeals have been made.

The symptoms marking the diseased lives of these scores of children have been confined either mainly or entirely to aberration of the "moral sense," with either no deterioration of the intellect or, if slight, such as could be considered secondary only. These phenomenal disorders have dated from temper explosions, night terrors, and most remarkable obstacles observed in infancy and early childhood, or may have originated in a marked and well-remembered febrile attack, associated with some infantile disease and accompanied perhaps with convulsions, or, more rarely, may have followed a markedly nervous and precocious youthhood too suddenly reaching a serious climax at puberty. The fundamental disorder is manifested in derangement of the moral perceptions or emotional nature rather than in the intellectual life, which not infrequently is preco-

cious. Unaccountable and unreasonable frenzies, long periods of sulks, and comfort in sulking; motiveless and persistent lying; thieving, generally without acquisitiveness; a blind and headlong impulse toward arson; delight in cruelty, first toward domestic pets, and later toward helpless or young companions; self-inflicted violence, even to pain and the drawing of blood; occasionally, delight in the sight of blood; habitual wilfulness and defiance, even in the face of certain punishment; a singular tolerance to surgical pain and hebetude or insensibility under disciplinary inflictions,— these are some of the forms in which the congenital deficiency of the moral sense evidences itself. It is hard to answer, "What is there in all this to distinguish from simple wickedness or badness?" unless the answer is contained in the persistency of the trait and the utter destitution of any reason for it, as is indicated in the confessed helplessness of the child to do differently. As a further aid to the diagnosis, we may refer to the fact that in one class of these cases the conduct is the reverse of what might be expected from the environment in which the child has developed; or, on the other hand, the ancestral and prenatal history of the child is such as to project a strong light for the interpretation of this condition as that of a neurotic inheritance.

Of the several children observed at Elwyn, quite frequently they are of faulty stock, presenting the gravest statistics of inebriety, epilepsy, acknowledged insanity, and in some instances even crime.

During the thirty years' contemplation of the subject, a marked change in professional opinion has been noted, so that it is no longer hazardous to reputation to believe in the existence of a condition termed "moral insanity" nor to refer to it as of commonly congenital origin, and hence better denominated "moral imbecility."

In Germany, both the legal and medical professions accept quite unanimously the doctrines of moral imbecility. The most enlightened minds of England have embraced them, and many in America are their advocates.

A distinguished judge of Pennsylvania has so far amended his habit of thinking as to agree with an eminent English judge who, "after many years of constant administering of the criminal law, was compelled to admit, that in a large majority of cases brought up for sentence, he himself would have committed the same acts if he had descended from the same stock and been subject to the same surroundings in early life"; and so far has this former gentleman progressed in this, to him, new line of thought as to have added: —

The helpless classes — lunatics, imbeciles, and criminals — all call for our sympathy as well as our care. They are all to a greater or less extent the victims of circumstances from which the more fortunate of humanity escape. There is no sharp dividing-line between these three. The ranks run into one another, and the individuals are readily interchangeable from one rank to the others. There is a moral defect in all of them, often also a physical defect. Call it moral insanity, moral imbecility, or what we will, it runs throughout all the helpless classes, and is the main element in their helplessness. Being unable to govern themselves to the extent required by the public good, it is our duty to govern them, and that without unnecessary harshness or cruelty.

Confirming testimony of these views was most abundantly given at the recent Second International Congress of Criminal Anthropology in Paris, at which were assembled distinguished representatives of science, law, medicine, and the administrated world, from France, Italy, Russia, Holland, Belgium, the United States of America, Denmark, Sweden, Roumania, Servia, Brazil, Mexico, Peru, Paraguay, and Hawaii. Sentences were there uttered so replete with originality, and so applicable to the subject we treat, that to quote them, even in the most abridged terseness, will give this paper its best value. Brouardel said: "It has been to the honor of the Italian school, in the land where Roman law, the foundation of all law, was born, that it has again put into the crucible the problem of criminality, and that it has proceeded to the analysis of that problem by the only truly scientific method, by studying the psychology of criminals, and their pathological abnormalities. It will be its distinction to have declared against illusory enthusiasm, and to have founded a science which will contribute to the more efficacious protection of society."

Lombroso, another leader of the Italian school, "summarized what he believed to be the most important abnormal physical characteristics found among criminals,— the presence of cranial and facial asymmetry, precocious synosteosis, unusual frequency of left-handedness, large orbits, prominence of the zygoma, large median occipital fossa. These characters, he considered, were all due to pathological causes."

Lacassagne pointed out "the too often forgotten factors of misery in the production of crime," but added "that he meant not social misery alone, but physiological misery, of which the origin was intra-uterine."

Benedickt, the Russian, with the forcible language born of elabo-

rate examinations of the brains of criminals, "declared the criminal to be a diseased person or a lunatic, in whom we must consider the molecular troubles of the cerebral substance as well as the external signs."

Garofolo, an eminent Neapolitan lawyer, said, "Criminal law must be treated as a detached and isolated science: it must be subordinate to psychology and anthropology, or it will be powerless to interpret and determine, in any enlightened legislation, the true classification of criminals."

M. Ferri summed up an able paper on the "Determining Condition of Crime" with the conclusion "that we must on the one hand ameliorate social conditions for the natural prevention of crime, and on the other hand exercise measures of temporary and perpetual elimination of individuals, according as the biological conditions in each case seem more or less curable."

M. Alimena attached great importance to education, especially its hereditary influence: "The criminal ought not to be able to say to his judge, 'Why have you not made me better?'" He agreed with the words of Lacassagne at the first Congress, "Societies have the criminals they deserve." M. Taverni had made a number of investigations on children in reformatories,— a study which he called pedagogic biology,— and had traced backwards the childhood of criminals, and forward the career of unpromising children. The chief indications he had found in the childhood of criminals were inaptitude to education, resistance of family order, and revolt against social conventionalities. Among adult criminals are found in their childhood the same characteristics of inaptitude and resistance. M. Magnin, with a corresponding large experience, said, "The child is already often a complete criminal, as the result of physical and moral degeneration due to nervous, insane, or alcoholic heredity."

But nearer home we find apt delineations of "moral imbecility." Lyman P. Alden, of the Rose Orphan Home, Terre Haute, Ind., in his second report, and as his summary of experience covering many years, speaks of a group which he has encountered in his reformatory work, as follows: —

> But there is a third class, for whom little can ever be done. Congenital and hereditary evil propensities are so powerful that all human agencies are too weak to cope with and arrest them. With now and then an exception, they are the children of degenerate parents, the consequences of whose sins they are now bearing. Not every child

of evil parents will be bad, by any means, any more than every child of good parents will become good. But the strong tendency is all that way, as every intelligent, observing superintendent of children's institutions must have observed. These are the children that, in spite of all our efforts to rescue them, will finally go to swell the class of prostitutes, paupers, and habitual criminals. Love, kindness, rewards, encouragements, warnings, entreaties, and punishments are equally ineffective, except as temporary restraints. The vileness and evil that are packed in some of them would be incredible to those who have never become acquainted with this class. What shall be done with them it is hard to say. Sent back to their homes and old associates, their downward course is rapid. To place them with nice families is an imposition on the families, unless they are informed of the facts; and then few would take them. Whenever institutions have sent such children out to homes, they are soon returned, worse than ever. To keep them in the institution endangers the morals of the other children as well as its peace, harmony, and good order. But, fortunately, of this hopeless class there is not a large number, less than five per cent.; and, if at last they fail to become good citizens, it cannot be charged against society that they never had any chance.

And again, before this body at its meeting in St. Louis, in 1884, Dr. J. D. Scouller described with prolific illustrations this third class of the reformatory population, "as the boys who will make our criminals, who will be our law-breakers; the boys who love the world, the flesh, and the devil"; those of whom Solomon says, "You may bray them in a mortar among wheat with a pestle," but you will only damage the wheat. Their souls are as impressionable to gratitude as the granite slab to the rays of the sun. They are always innocent of the crimes charged against them. He correctly says: "They are not all from the criminal ranks. We find on examination that there may be perhaps twenty per cent. from respectable and well-regulated homes, thirty per cent. from the careless, undisciplined, but not necessarily criminal families, and fifty per cent. from the criminal classes of society."

Ladies and gentlemen, if we could come to the conclusion that we have a class of little children whose heredity and aberrations are such as to make them the predestined inmates of our insane hospitals and jails, what an advance we would make in the diminution of crime and lunacy by a methodized registration and training of such children, or, these failing, by their early and entire withdrawal from the community!

Instead of so much interest being centred about the seventy-five

per cent. who are discharged annually from your refuges, alleged to be reformed and fit for society, a no less interest would be displayed in the black residuum of twenty-five per cent. who are also discharged, to be as yet unaccounted for in the statistics of reformatory work, but, pariah-like, to add a contribution of evil to society which will shadow, if not eclipse, the accredited value of our whole reformatory work.

Cannot an almost unerring decision be made by the trained and humane experts of our asylums, jails, and reformatories, by which the indeterminate sequestration, under the best conditions for their moral and physical welfare, shall be the practice of those who are congenitally unfit to mingle their lives and blood with the general community?

The various Ladies' Aid Societies of the country, the associations for the protection of children from cruelty, and many other organized charities, are all working in the right direction, in gathering out from unfit and barbarous homes the ill-bred and misbred nervous children of coarse and brutal stock; for it is now quite recognizable that a drunken or criminal parentage is not fit to rear its ill-gotten progeny. But it is less recognizable that a fussy parentage is ill qualified, too, for the training of its nervous, over-sensitive, and spoiled progeny. The societies referred to are doing their utmost primarily to domicile unfortunate children in private and considerate homes, and, unsuccessful in this, to endow our foster homes, refuges, and institutions for the defective with a liberal clientage. It is only a step farther to analyze this heterogeneous mass into "curable" and "incurables," and to restrain the undue haste in thrusting the incurable out upon a world for which they are utterly unfit, where they poison and contaminate as many more, and, after taxing society with their prolific and indiscreet reproduction, are drifted at last into poorhouses, jails, and hospitals of the commonwealth.

The practical thought I have to offer from this is: let us recognize "congenital moral imbecility" as a terrible fact.

Let us accept this moral imbecility as the incurable infirmity of an irresponsible victim, to whom, as the piteous cross-bearer of the sins of society, we owe kindly nursing and protection against himself by a grateful and total withdrawal from the community, which, in its turn, has a right to demand that he shall not scathe our common stock with permanent taint in blood and *morale.*

Let us widen our thought so as to include under the great generic

class of imbecility not only the accepted physical and intellectual forms, which are now so obvious, but also this sadder and more dangerous group, which, neglected and misunderstood because of our ignorance or hardness, is sapping our mental and moral vitality.

And, as a further practical suggestion, I wish to add that any general State institution for the care of the feeble-minded should embrace a department for the care of the *moral imbeciles*. They can be indentured to work. They can, so far as their stolid natures will permit, be best drawn into sympathetic relations by contact with helpless idiocy, and be made to contribute toward its nourishment. They need not necessarily be taught to read and write; for the school, as ordinarily kept, contributes to their deterioration. Intellectual entertainment for these people is best provided in the exercises of the shop, the field, and garden. They take aptly to theatricals, base-ball, cornet, orchestral and vocal music; and these, with kindred amusements, should be the indulgences granted for good behavior and for the uplifting and general "good of all." I trust there are some — yes, many — in this Conference who may see in these suggestions a line which followed will lead to the relief of many of our institutions, to a better understanding of this worst form of moral perversion, and to a partial arrest of the apparently increasing degradation of our race.

XI.

Insanity.

STATE LEGISLATION FOR THE INSANE.

A REPORT FROM THE COMMITTEE ON COMMITMENT AND DETENTION OF THE INSANE.

During the past year the committee has continued its efforts to organize sub-committees in the States and Territories, as authorized by the Conference at the meeting held in Buffalo, N.Y., in 1888. In the selection of members of these sub-committees, great care has been exercised to apply only to gentlemen in the respective States who are in positions to exert a suitable influence, and who have manifested a special interest in the subjects referred to your committee. The list of committees is now very complete, and is herewith submitted. : —

ALABAMA.— P. Bryce, M.D., Tuskaloosa; Hon. H. M. Somerville, J. B. Gaston, M.D., Montgomery; James F. Searly, M.D., Tuskaloosa.

ARKANSAS.— Dr. Worcester, Little Rock.

CONNECTICUT.— The State Board of Charities, Hartford.

FLORIDA.— Dr. Mary J. Safford, Tarpon Springs.

ILLINOIS.— H. Wardner, M.D., Anna; R. H. Dewey, M.D., Kankakee; E. A. Kilbourne, M.D., Elgin; H. F. Carriel, M.D., Jacksonville.

INDIANA.— W. B. Fletcher, M.D., Indianapolis; J. G. Rogers, M.D., Logansport; and the members of the State Board of Charities, Indianapolis.

IOWA.— Albert Reynolds, M.D., Clinton; J. McCowen, M.D., C. S. Watkins, Davenport; Rev. S. S. Hunting, Des Moines.

KANSAS.— The State Board of Trustees.

MAINE.— Frederick H. Gerrish, M.D., Portland.

MARYLAND.— Richard Gundry, M.D., Catonsville; Henry M. Hurd, M.D., Baltimore.

MASSACHUSETTS.— F. B. Sanborn, Concord; Pliny Earle, M.D., Northampton; I. T. Talbot, M.D., Boston; Joseph A. Allen, Med field; Charles G. Fall, Malden; Hon. Alvan Barrus, Goshen.

MICHIGAN.— Dr. C. B. Burr, Pontiac; Hon. Levi L. Barbour, J. W. Waterman, J. E. Emerson, M.D., Detroit; Hon. C. B. Grant, Marquette; Hon. John B. Shipman, Coldwater.

MINNESOTA.— The State Board of Charities, St. Paul.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.— Hon. J. W. Patterson, Hanover; Hon. W. S. Ladd, Lancaster; Hon. W. L. Foster, Irving A. Watson, M.D., Concord; Hon. David Cross, Manchester.

NEW JERSEY.— Charlton T. Lewis, Esq., Morristown; Ezra M. Hunt, M.D., Trenton.

NEW YORK.— Hon. Dorman B. Eaton, New York City; Hon. W. P. Letchworth, Portageville; Judson B. Andrews, M.D., Buffalo; Oscar Craig, Esq., Rochester; C. H. Porter, M.D., Albany.

NORTH DAKOTA.— O. W. Archibald, M.D., Jamestown.

OHIO.— The State Board of Charities.

PENNSYLVANIA.— Thomas G. Morton, M.D., Philadelphia.

RHODE ISLAND.— Hon. Thomas Coggeshall, Newport; Amos C. Barstow, Jr., Providence; James H. Eastman, Howard; G. W. Wightman, W. A. Gorton, M.D., C. Morris Smith, Providence.

TEXAS.— Hon. R. S. Gould, Hon. J. W. Moore, Prof. R. T. Hill, Austin; D. R. Wallace, M.D., Terrell.

VERMONT.— Joseph Draper, M.D., Brattleboro.

VIRGINIA.— Rev. W. R. L. Smith, D.D., Lynchburg.

WISCONSIN.— The State Board of Charities and Reform.

The formation of these sub-committees has required a large amount of correspondence, which has been chiefly carried on for the committee by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, who is now absent in Europe. It is his opinion, in which the undersigned members of the committee concur, that by the organization of these sub-committees your committee has laid the foundations for future successful efforts in the direction of securing possible and needful uniformity in the laws relating to the commitment and detention of the insane. We, therefore, respectfully suggest that the committees' report be accepted as of progress in its work, and that it be continued.

The committee can report little legislation relating to the commitment and detention of the insane during the past year, though the subject has been actively agitated in many States. Important modifications of existing laws, we believe, are in the near future; and the committee have the assurance of many members of our sub-committees that they will take an active interest in promoting uniformity of laws, so far as uniformity may be practicable.

Questions somewhat allied to those immediately under consideration of the committee have been brought to our attention, where uniformity of lunacy legislation is most desirable. Perhaps the most

important of these is the legal status of the insane who escape from custody in one State and are found in another. Of equal importance is recent legislation in at least one State (Wisconsin), which positively forbids the transportation of the insane from one State into another. The committee is of the opinion that these subjects might well be included among those for which it was especially organized.

STEPHEN SMITH, *Chairman.*

ON THE CARE AND TREATMENT OF THE INSANE.

BY RICHARD GUNDRY, M.D.

It is admitted by all that the "State" or "Commonwealth" should care for the insane within its borders. Their care constitutes "a rent-charge upon the whole community," as Daniel Defoe said two hundred years ago, or, as Horace Mann formulated the same idea, "The insane are the wards of the State." That the State may delegate some part of this care to its agents, to individuals, counties, cities, towns, whatever the subdivisions may be, may be taken for granted, though to what extent is a question of grave import and admitting of much dispute. There are some States in which the support, care, and supervision of the insane are wholly assumed by the State and performed by its own agents. There are others in which cities, counties, towns, jointly with, but more largely than the State, support the insane; and the supervision is in the same proportion, when it exists at all. Now, it will readily be seen that the *support and provision* for the insane may or may not be made by these counties, cities, and towns, as custom and expediency may dictate. Some would prefer one system, others the other. But I think that all will unite in the opinion that the "State" cannot, and should not if it could, divest itself of the duty of "supervision." It formulates the laws for the care and protection of the insane, and should always provide the agency by which intelligent supervision will see that they are complied with by individuals, corporations, counties, and cities. This supervisory power may be exercised by Boards of State Charities, Commissions of Lunacy, Commissioners of Lunacy, Inspectors, or similar organizations under other names. Practically there exist the following classes of States: —

1. States which profess to provide for insane inhabitants from State resources altogether, and for State supervision by Boards of Trustees of the institutions for the insane, and in some of these States by Boards of State Charities, Lunacy Commissions, or other State agencies. This class comprises Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Kansas, Mississippi, Minnesota, and California. In these States the practice is not always equal to the profession; and many of their insane are left to the care of the counties, cities, etc., awaiting the development of the State provision.

2. Those which provide by State appropriations for the support of the *indigent class* only in the State institution, the well-to-do class paying their own expenses. Among these are Alabama, Virginia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Kentucky.

3. States in which the State assists to provide for the insane by providing buildings and the State supervision for their care, but shares with the counties, cities, etc., in their support. Thus in Pennsylvania the cost of keeping a patient at a State asylum is reckoned at $3.50 per week and a sum not exceeding 50 cents per week for clothing. Of this counties pay $1.75 per week, and the State the balance.

In Michigan the rate of board is fixed at $3.50 per week for all indigent patients, paid by towns and cities, with no charge for clothing. After two years' residence in the hospital, the board of each patient is paid by the State. Other provisions, similar in character, differing in amount only, obtain in Massachusetts, Maryland, Maine, Vermont, Connecticut, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Wisconsin.

The essential point is, the counties or cities pay in part, the State making up the deficiency.

4. In some instances, notably in Wisconsin, there is added to the State system a county plan for the care of the chronic insane, to which the State contributes the same amount per patient to the county supporting him as if he were in a State asylum; the county providing buildings and all things required and approved by the Board of State Charities, which body as the agent of the State exercises the right of thorough supervision, with the power of withdrawing the State aid when accommodations and treatment fail to meet their standard of excellence.

Insane people must be cared for in their own homes or families or in homes provided for them. If in their own families, the State does not step in, unless such restriction is exercised as to debar the pa-

tient from rights inherent to all men,— the right of locomotion, of choosing and changing his residence, and then only to see whether such restriction is necessary for the patient's good and protection of the community, whether it is sufficient, whether it is excessive. The family hearth is not needlessly to be invaded, for it is very sacred; but there do arise circumstances in which interference by the State is imperative, both for the good of the patient and the highest interest of the community. And I apprehend that some of the most difficult and delicate questions that Boards of State Charities or Commissions of Lunacy have to decide are met with just here. On the one hand, all acquainted with the subject will recall cases where all hope has been permitted to vanish by the delay in seeking proper care for the insane child or parent from the ignorance or the scruples of the family, and sometimes from the misplaced belief that they could hide their skeleton from a knowledge of the world. From these motives, all outside help has been zealously declined and restrictions relied upon, sometimes of the mildest type, not unfrequently gradually developing into the most cruel. But, on the other hand, it must be also admitted that a considerable number of acute cases run a very short course, and recover their normal condition of mind under treatment at their homes. I have seen several such cases in consultation with the family physician, who successfully guided the treatment to a successful issue; and I know of many more. Terrible tragedies have resulted from reliance upon therapeutic treatment at home without adequate watchfulness over the patient, it is true; but it is no less true that some cases have been unnecessarily protracted, if not seriously compromised, as to the completeness of recovery, by premature and unnecessary removal to a hospital. Blind partisanship is out of place in such a question, yet it has had too much influence in the discussion of this subject. The decision must rest entirely upon the symptoms and environment of the individual, and nothing else. With the patient healed at home, however actually insane, his legal status has not been affected when he recovers; and that is a great advantage, not lightly to be disregarded. One difficulty is met with, however, in the repugnance of many physicians in ordinary practice to assume the treatment of these cases. Of course, the practicability of treatment at home of cases will be regulated by the purse or circumstances of the family, as well as by their general knowledge or ignorance of the earlier stages of insanity, which they confound, if they observe at all, with other totally different condi-

tions. To the poor man who may be conscious of the change which impends, and whose shadow he feels, but cannot explain, there is not much hope of early treatment at home,— treatment which in many cases would arrest the progress of his diseased condition, or secure to him vigilant attention and prompt removal when absolutely necessary, instead of awaiting its cumulation and explosion in some extravagant act before seeking relief. I rejoiced, therefore, to see an effort made in this direction by the Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane, at the suggestion of the distinguished physician in chief of that hospital, Dr. John B. Chapin, whose labors so well known and appreciated on behalf of the large neglected class of chronic insane he now has supplemented by sagacious efforts for the equally sad and equally neglected class of the acute insane in their incipient stages. I quote from Dr. Chapin's report: —

It becomes an important question how those persons who have experienced some of the premonitory indications of insanity, and who have not the means to enable them to secure proper treatment, may receive the advice they ought to have at this critical period. Physicians hesitate to make a certificate of insanity, unless symptoms are very prominent, and under the lunacy law cannot be admitted and detained at a stage when the greatest prospect of restoration may exist. It is to their interest, that of their families, and that of the community which may be called upon to support them for months or years, that they recover as quickly as practicable. To afford those suffering from premonitory symptoms of insanity or insanity in its incipient stages prompt medical advice, the managers have added to their Out-patient Department a service for the gratuitous treatment of all proper cases of this class, which was opened Nov. 1, 1885.

Dr. Chapin adds: —

Of the importance of the service, and that it may be the means of doing a good work, no doubt exists; but whether the class it is designed to benefit will avail themselves of it is not yet demonstrated, and in this sense only can it be regarded as an experiment. Steps to establish a similar department for outdoor patients with incipient insanity in connection with the West Riding Asylum at Wakefield, Yorkshire, England, have been taken. These tentative efforts to secure early advice to those who, conscious of the impending danger, desire to avert it, will no doubt produce others in like direction; and in time, modified by experience in forms best adapted for the purpose, they will take their place among the permanent agencies for the treatment of the insane. Who does not wish every such effort God-speed?

All cases, however, especially among the poor, are not apparent to their friends or recognized by themselves in the stage of incubation, or that stage may be very short. Some explosion of the disorder, manifested in violent or extravagant actions and speech or by wandering from home, may apparently necessitate their restriction; and, as this is impracticable by their friends, or they have wandered beyond their reach, whatever the reason, the aid of the law is invoked to determine their status and care for them accordingly. It is difficult to distinguish among these persons those whose disorder will run a rapid course and those whose disorder is of a more permanent character. It is very desirable that suitable accommodations be provided for those about whom a doubt may exist in this regard, where they could be detained and treated carefully for a short time, enough for those whose abnormal condition may be temporary to regain their normal state, and to demonstrate in the others their need of more permanent provision. Delirium from temporary causes, and those cases (more numerous than often supposed) where inhibitory power is rapidly regained with slight external aid, would escape the opprobrium that an adjudication of insanity conveys,— a fact, however much we may condemn it,— and be promptly restored to their friends. To recall the wandering faculties into the line of co-operative and effective action requires frequently the most vigorous measures; but sometimes slighter means serve as a signal to fall into line, to which a prompt response is made. The difference between the two classes is not always easy to discover. Moreover, such temporary accommodations are demanded upon another ground. In several States where the insanity of the individual is determined by judicial procedure, by trial before a judge or jury, delays occur from the crowded business of the court, want of knowledge to identify the patient, or other reasons not necessary to state, when the patient has to be cared for, and the only place usually turns out to be the county or city jail, where, until the courts of his county can care for him, he is immured, to consort with and be the sport of the most depraved of the community, his only crimes being a sick man and "a pauper whom nobody owns." The extent of this evil I do not know, but it must be great; and it prevails more or less in every great city in our land, and probably in some countries. If to provide proper accommodations for their treatment be too great a boon to be expected, at least the community ought to furnish a place of detention, distinct and separate from the county jail, generally "the sum of all vil-

lanies." In this connection let me glance at another wrong often suffered by the helpless insane at the hand of public officers. In many States the law is silent upon the subject; and they are often, for convenience' sake, taken to the asylum at the same time with convicts to the penitentiary, where the two institutions are in the same neighborhood. In some States the law forbids this practice, and in all States it should do so. Criminals and insane persons should be kept as separate as possible. Misfortune is not legally a crime as yet, though we are tending in that direction faster than is agreeable. Sheriffs err in this respect more from thoughtlessness than from improper motives, in a majority of cases; though probably the difference in the matter of fees may assist their obliquity of vision. Insane females are in like manner conveyed by officers of the law either with or without such associates, but too often without any female companion, and that, too, for long distances by railroad or steamboat. I need only mention this: The wrong is obvious, and should be corrected by law, wherever statutory provision does not already exist.

The delay in procuring the admission of acute cases for treatment on account of the hesitation of physicians in signing a certificate of insanity has in some cases, and will hereafter, prove a serious drawback to their prospects of improvement. By the wealthy this may be overcome by arrangements for proper care during the doubtful period of observation and hesitation of the physician, but to the less fortunate with moderate means the matter involves more than money. It has been proposed to have homes or nurseries for those whose attacks lie on the borders of insanity. The difficulty is not in the treatment of selected cases in such homes, provided they feel disposed to stay or that an authority exists for their detention; but how provide for that without encountering the same difficulties after a time that have been cited about the admission to hospitals? For convalescents such homes would be admirable, and no such difficulty arises concerning their detention for suitable periods. To a certain extent managers of hospitals have attempted to meet the want of accommodation for such cases; and several, as at the New Hampshire Asylum the Butler Hospital, separated from the rest of the establishment, furnish suitable apartments, or suites of apartments, with such private attendance as the means of the occupant afford to pay for, with all the privacy and independence of private residence. At the same time, those not able to provide so liberal an outfit or not

desiring it can have single rooms with the general attendance, and secure all the benefits of the retired and quiet situation without burdensome expense. But they do not meet the whole difficulty, the admission to them being the same as to the hospital generally. The difficulty is in providing for the *restriction* of the liberties of a person, no matter whether the restriction is hardly to be discerned by anybody else, *if the patient cannot remove* it at pleasure. In recognition of the difficulty in bringing under treatment at an early date the insane poor, the question of treating acute cases of insanity in wards of a general hospital has engaged and deserves attention. The progressive colony of Victoria has established lunacy wards in the public hospitals of Melbourne and the colony generally, for the treatment of insanity in its early stages. The colonies of New South Wales and Queensland have for the same purpose provided reception houses. The result of these enlightened Australian experiments will be watched with great interest, and will doubtless aid the solution of an interesting though complicated problem. So much valuable time is so often lost in bringing an acute case under appropriate treatment in the hospital for the insane, partly from a natural desire to avoid the stigma which is, wrongly perhaps, but nevertheless, attached to the adjudication of being insane, and partly from the delay, from the time required to meet the requirements of the law, with oftentimes in some places the odious publicity attached to the proceedings, that wards for the insane in general hospitals for the reception and treatment of recently occurring cases, or reception houses for their care and treatment, to which, without any great formality, cases may be taken, as other cases of various diseases are taken, will undoubtedly prove a boon. But I apprehend that not *all* acute cases could be so healed with benefit. Time and experience, however, will establish the limits within which this proposed plan can be worked. These limits may be found much wider than we now have reason to expect; nor does it follow that, if the wards of general hospitals as now constituted do not prove exactly the place for the treatment of acute insanity, modifications of them may not be suggested by experience and observation by which they may be so adapted.

In this direction may be regarded the movements in London to establish a new hospital for the insane for one hundred beds, the staff to consist of a resident medical officer of asylum experience, and assistant, four visiting physicians, a consulting surgeon, an ophthalmologist, an aurist, a laryngologist, a gynæcologist, and a

pathologist. Whether acute cases are only to be received and what the limit allowed for their residence is not exactly stated. While I cannot indulge in the sanguine anticipations of the advocates of this hospital, yet I believe it is a step in the right direction, which, after more or less modifications to suit the emergencies which may arise, will ultimately prove a great blessing to those suffering from recent attacks of insanity, especially among the poor.

But I fear that, in spite of all these, there will always be a large proportion of the recent insane who will require care in hospitals for the insane organized essentially as now. I have long thought that there should be in every institution some special departments for the recent cases, and such others as are assimilated to them by their symptoms, who require more medical treatment, more close nursing, and arrangements more nearly allied to those usual for ordinary sickness. In this direction should our energies be turned, and for them no expense should be spared necessary to effect the purpose. So I addressed you ten years ago. I now add that the departments should be in a separate building, detached from the hospital, and in itself a complete hospital. I understand that such a department has been projected to the asylums of Michigan by Dr. Palmer, but whether carried out I do not know.

Pass from this subject to the accommodation necessary for that large number about whom no doubt exists, and who have legal right to be admitted to such places as exist. At first, the violence of paroxysms in the victims of mania concentrated the attention of those who considered this subject; and it was thought essential that the building should be erected strong enough to resist the most strenuous efforts of the most pronounced cases, and no attempts to hide these precautions were made. By and by it was found that all were not so violent actually, though each might possibly be. Then the attempt began not to correct the principle which prevailed, but only to conceal or modify the evidences of strength. The chain was *gilded*. If only ten men in a hundred really needed such provisions, the ninety must also have them; but they might be made less obvious to the eye by various artifices to conceal them. Yet they rarely succeeded in deceiving any by this imitation of the policy of the ostrich. Architects and physicians made elaborate contrivances and calculations, like the tailor of Laputa, who, as the veracious Gulliver records, did his office after a different manner from those of his trade in Europe: "He first took my altitude by a quadrant, and then with

rule and compasses described the dimensions and outlines of my whole body, all which he entered upon paper; and in six days brought my clothes, very ill-made and quite out of shape, by happening to mistake a figure in the calculation. But my comfort was that I observed such accidents very frequent and little regarded." We take very scientifically the altitude and dimensions of the general mass of insanity to be provided for, but make the very slight error in calculation of leaving out the wants of the individual man. Now we have detected the error, and revised our calculations; but I am not so sure whether we will not discover another misfit. I am inclined to think most comfortable institutions have been those which were not planned as a whole, but are the outgrowth of necessity from careful observation of individual wants. In our system of detached buildings, planned for the whole mass, may not an error creep in, which may vitiate the calculation? We are too apt to think of the provision for the insane as Charlemagne propagated Christianity. "He converted them by regiments, and baptized them by platoons." History is silent as to the permanence of the change of character thus effected. Arrangements theoretically perfect don't always work well.

From one of the reports of Western Kentucky Asylum I copy the following remark of Dr. Rodman, in which he very naïvely describes the genesis and evolution of detached buildings at that institution: —

In my last report I wrote: "We have had for some years detached quarters for quiet male patients, accommodations in many respects, in my judgment, better for such persons than can be had in any very large building. I have been anxious to make similar arrangements for a few females, as a test of the expediency of establishing a more domestic mode of life for such as can be trusted, to give them a greater liberty than is usually found in asylums for the insane, and to remove them as far as possible from the disagreeable associations unavoidably incident to a residence with any considerable number of insane people. To secure the ends suggested, I have built a substantial and well-furnished cottage, some distance from the main building, yet near enough for constant medical oversight, with all the appliances of a homelike dwelling, including open fireplaces, dining-room, kitchen, bath-room, and water-closet. It will be handsomely furnished, then put in charge of a responsible matron and needed attendants. I believe that in this cottage, and another now in use, it will be demonstrated that a system of detached buildings is in most respects preferable for a large class of inmates of the present manner of asylum construction." My expectations have been realized fully. The cottage has proved so satisfactory that the erection of others will be undertaken, to be completed as the means can be spared from our

ordinary income. I believe this is a good, if not the best, way of meeting to some extent the unavoidable increase of those who become a charge upon the public.

In several of those institutions which receive patients from the comfortable classes they have established summer resorts, to which a few can go to the country or seaside for longer or shorter periods. These colonies have a slight connection with the mother institution in regard to management and general oversight, but are distinct and distant. Bloomingdale Asylum uses a farm-house for this, Friends' Asylum at Frankford a cottage at Atlantic City, and allows a show of independence by giving a new name, Gurney Cottage. McLean Asylum has a cottage at Lynn, and Vermont Asylum has one on the mountain. All these, as far as they go, are material advances; but only one class can reap the benefit.

The cottages, annexes, or detached buildings, in connection with established institutions, have been very generally introduced rather than adding another wing, as formerly.

The tide has set in strongly in that direction. One result of this tendency cannot be too highly commended,—the separation of those classes which injuriously affect the other and making special provision for their wants. At Willard Asylum they erect a building of one story, and especially adapted for the filthy class of patients, with a large day-room, dormitory, and a few single rooms. Thus, with suitable appliances and a special and large service, their condition can be ameliorated by constant vigilant oversight. The same is true at Nanstown, and possibly at other institutions. Departments for the epileptics and for the insane criminals are easily provided under this detached system. My own opinion is, however, that each of these classes should be treated in separate institutions.

The insane criminals, together with those having committed homicides while insane, are cared for in the States of New York and Michigan in buildings erected for the special purpose, unconnected with penitentiary or asylum. In other States they are cared for in special departments of the penitentiary or transferred to the wards of the State asylum. There are very great objections to either course. Clearly, an insane person, whatever his antecedents, is no object for punishment, and should not be kept in a place dedicated to that purpose. On the other hand, there are many objections to the mingling of this class with the insane whose previous lives are untainted with

crime. Nor are the objections solely of a sentimental nature, for some are of a very practical character. In every State, therefore, where there are sufficient members of this class, separate and comfortable establishments should be erected for them.

Of the epileptic insane I desire to say a few words. They are disturbing elements in every asylum. However mild their forms of insanity generally, however amiable their character, they are liable to explosive paroxysms of fury; and their epileptic attacks are shocking to witness. It can be no question that their frequent fits exercise a very unfavorable influence upon other patients of an impressionable nature. For this reason, doubtless, many who should be under hospital care are refused admittance, and drift into various nooks and corners, where God alone knows how they subsist. Many find their way to the poorhouse. Among these men are sometimes found excellent, reliable workers during the intervals, long or short, between their paroxysms. In many of them, their insanity is only manifested for short periods before, during, or after the epileptic attack. It is calculated that about one-third only of epileptics are insane. Of these, many are so from early childhood, and are deprived by this misfortune of the opportunities of education and training, except the few who are fortunate enough to have obtained admission into a school for the feeble-minded. Without this training, and sometimes in spite of it, the mind is gradually destroyed, and a dense imbecility, if not idiocy, coexists with great physical strength. The young disease, which must subdue at length, grows with our growth and strengthens with our strength, and evokes terror and disgust in most beholders. There is a class of epileptics who are not insane, or are only momentarily so; and some of these from favorable circumstances succeed in life, in spite of the drawback of their disease. A majority, however, it is feared, while capable of honest labor and perchance seeking it, are often, simply from the disagreeable effects of these fits upon others and the fear they engender, unable to retain positions they acquire, and, driven from pillar to post, at last sink into a state of indifference and pauperism. Thus, in the school, in the workshop, in the various avocations of life, in the hospital, in the asylum for the insane, the epileptic is discriminated against. The poorhouse alone is open to him. True, there are many in American insane asylums,— many, not because they are insane and unmanageable (for some of them are without any symptoms of mental trouble), but because there is no other

place except the poorhouse for them to find refuge. Yet, whether occasionally insane or wholly insane, many of these have an ordinary intelligence, are capable of education, as well adapted to industrial pursuits, as well able to support themselves by their own exertions, as most people, if opportunity were only afforded them. Slight efforts for their benefit have been made in various places. Among the nine institutions grouped together under the name the "John Bost" Asylum, at Laforce (Dordogne), France, founded by the labors of "John Bost," one hundred and fifty epileptics are cared for. There is also a small enterprise lately entered upon by the State of Massachusetts, by converting a private asylum into a public one, subsidized by the legislature. The New York City Hospital for Nervous and Epileptic on Blackwell's Island also receives a few such cases. But these efforts at amelioration, in comparison with the extent of the calamity,— there are over 100,000 epileptics in the United States,— are like the celebrated contest of Mrs. Partington and the Atlantic Ocean! It is to Germany that we must look for light to guide us, as an excellent article by Dr. Pelusen of New York informs us. I quote from that gentleman his very interesting account of what has been done in this direction: —

Some twenty-four years ago, a Lutheran clergyman, Pastor von Bodelschwingh, purchased a farm in the suburbs of Bielefeld, and, with four epileptics as a beginning, established a colony, which for nobility of conception and excellence of results is unique in our civilization.

It seemed to this benignant man that it was feasible to create a refuge where these sufferers might be cured, if curable; where their disease might be ameliorated, their intellectual decay prevented; where they might have a comfortable home if recovery were impossible; where they might develop their mental faculties to the utmost; might acquire trades or engage in whatever occupation they cared to choose; finally growing into a community of educated, useful, industrious, prosperous, and contented citizens. From that small beginning there has been a gradual evolution and expansion of the colony. In 1878, it had 250 epileptics; in 1880, 458; in 1882, 556; in 1886, 830; and at the time of this writing considerably over 1,000.

During the twenty years from 1867 to 1887, 2,407 epileptics had been received and treated at the colony. Of these, 156, or 6½ per cent., were discharged recovered, and over 450 improved. But the dispensation of good by the colony is not limited to its immediate inhabitants; for upon application, with or without payment, medicines are sent to epileptics in every part of the world, without regard to sect or nativity, and the enormous extent of this export of remedies

may be appreciated from the fact that eight hundred pounds of potassic bromide are now consumed per month by residents and correspondents. Some 48,000 epileptics have been beneficiaries of this charity.

The industrial pursuits at Bielefeld are numerous and varied. Occupation not only ameliorates the mental and physical condition of epileptics, but the incurably afflicted are offered opportunities for culture and callings not attainable anywhere except in institutions of this character.

The Bielefeld Colony now consists of 55 houses, 150 families, and over 2,000 inhabitants, inclusive of teachers, nurses, industrial trainers, colaborers, and patients. The colony has little or nothing about it to suggest an institution, but is rather similar to a country village, with its variegated cottages and pretty gardens and farms. The houses are scattered over three hundred and twenty acres of beautiful woodland and meadow. A synopsis of the uses of most of the buildings is given: —

Female Division.

Two cottages for patients of the better class.
One house for feeble-minded women and girls.
One house for half-demented girls.
One house for convalescent girls.
Fourteen houses for school children and workers.

Male Division.

Two houses for patients of the better class.
One house with three school-rooms for boys and youths.
Nine houses for hand-workers.
Four houses for gardeners and farmers, with gardens, farms, and brick-kiln.
Five houses for more or less demented patients, two of which are for those still able to work.

One of the chief features of the colony is the system of decentralization,— the division of the patients as much as possible into small families occupying cottages, the separation of the sexes, of the feeble-minded from those with normal mental faculties, separation according to age, social standing, former occupation, etc.

For the purpose of securing a sufficient number of male and female nurses and of a superior order of kindly and sympathetic care, it was deemed expedient to found at the Bielefeld Colony also nurses' training schools; and, as a result of this, not only have they well-trained brothers and sisters, forming an order of deacons and deaconesses for their own use, but they have been enabled to supply various hospitals and insane asylums with a high class of care-takers.

To observe more closely the variety of employments in vogue, one must make a personal visit to this remarkable colony, which I did in the winter of 1886–87.

We find here schools in which instruction is given in all the branches usually taught in ordinary public schools; and, to those who desire these, opportunities for higher studies in languages, arts, and sciences are granted, many of the richer patients even employing private tutors for this purpose. In the sewing-room, singing or being read to, may be seen sixty or more young women, making and repairing clothing, knitting stockings, doing useful fancy work, manufacturing wearing apparel and bed-clothes. In the kitchen and in the vegetable garden, they may be seen busy with the preparation of meals and the proper rearing of garden produce. The bedrooms, dormitories, and dining-rooms, the laundries, drying and ironing rooms, furnish occupation for a large number of other women.

The men naturally have greater variety of employment. There are the book-store, printing establishment, and book bindery; a room for those who delight in illuminating picture-cards and mottoes for mural decoration, a favorite art everywhere in Germany. At the bindery, pictures are framed, books bound, envelopes made, and some leather-work done. The books printed are, in particular, popular works for the dissemination of moral and religious instruction. Twenty men are employed at this work. Floriculture, agriculture, and fruit-raising require large numbers of employees, particularly so since so much flower and vegetable seed produce is garnered, put in packages, and shipped and sold from their own seed-store.

A joinery, bakery, tailor-shop, paint-shop, locksmith-shop, blacksmith-shop, foundery, tin-shop, shoe-shop, saddlery, dairy, brick-yard, drug store, and grocery, all provide occupation to numberless inhabitants of this colony, even to some suffering also from old hemiphlegias.

Some of the houses have been planned by epileptic architects, the brick made by sixty epileptic patients at the brick-kiln, the masonry done by epileptic workmen, the wood-work made by their own carpenters, the iron-work by their own smiths, the painting and glazing furnished by their own adepts in these various trades.

For men alone there are over thirty different callings. From this it will be seen how noble was the conception of this truly philanthropic institution. And not only in manifold employment has the genius of its conceiver been made manifest, but in all things that might tend to distract the minds of the patients from themselves and their misfortunes. Games and amusements are many: walks in the gardens, out-of-door sports, evening entertainments, singing school, an orchestra made up from their own number, a museum for the collection of stamps, coins, gems, autographs, bronzes, antiquities, articles of ethnographic or historical interest, and specimens from the animal, vegetable, and mineral kindgdoms,— all have been carefully thought out for the perfect evolution of this little social world.

When the evil disorder attacks one in the field or garden, willing hands are near to attend to him; and every workshop has its mattress within convenient reach on occasions of emergency.

To sum up the objects of this colony, it is, in the first place, a hospital for the cure of epilepsy; and attempts at cure are made upon every patient without exception. It is a school for the instruction and education of epileptic children. It is an industrial institute for epileptic youths and adults. It is an asylum for those who become demented from the effects of the disease. Although the colony is under the domination of the Church, and has a Lutheran pastor at its head, three physicians are employed to supervise the medical treatment, one of whom is resident in the colony.

Since the successful establishment of the Bielefeld Colony, a number of similar institutions for epileptics have sprung into existence on the continent, particularly in the various provinces of the German Empire. Among these are: —

Rotenburg, also in Hanover.
Mariahilf, near Munster, and Olpe in Westphalia.
Alexianer-Kloster at Aix-la-Chapelle and Rath, near Düsseldorf, for the Rhenish province.
Neustadt-Thale for Saxony.
Tabor, near Stettin, for Pomerania and Posen.
Karlshof, near Rastenburg, for East and West Prussia.
Potsdam for Brandenburg.
Haarlem in Holland.
Zürich in Switzerland.

I understand that a law was enacted by the legislature of Ohio, at its last session, forming a commission to acquire a site in some suitable locality for such a colony for epileptics. It is to be hoped that they will have the wisdom to acquire a large tract, so as to found a village or commune, and not an institution only. I trust that other States or philanthropic associations will soon follow this example.

I repeat, the tide has turned, and is fast flowing in the direction of detached buildings, grouped into hamlets or villages, for the care of the different classes of the insane under one management. The first and largest of these, whose foundation is due to the energy and foresight of Rev. F. H. Wines of Illinois, is situated at Kankakee, Ill.; and at its last report it accommodated 1,609 patients in a number of two-storied buildings, or cottages, arranged in streets, with separate buildings for administration, storehouses, workshops, kitchen, dining-rooms, and other purposes, in addition to a central building for those patients who are thought to require the accommodation of the old character.

1. The central building has accommodation for	370
2. Infirmary	52
3. Infirmary	52
4. Cottage	160
5. "	104
6. "	41
7. "	96
8. "	104
9.	104
10.	160
11.	43
12.	34
13.	46
14.	34
15.	33
16.	44
17.	37
18. Relief	90
	1,604

For this plan of hospital construction and division of the patients the following advantages are claimed by the accomplished medical superintendent, Dr. Dewey: —

1. Economy of construction.
2. Greater facility for employment of inmates.
3. More domestic life and less restriction of the patients.

All the buildings are of stone or brick, the main building being fire-proof throughout. The total cost of institution (excluding running expenses) up to date of report was $784.80 for each patient; cost of construction, $601.12 per patient. Those who have witnessed, as I have, the variety of occupation carried on will admit that the second proposition is proven.

The third proposition is also fully sustained. For nearly ten years this plan has been tried, and gradually extended to its present proportions. Since then, in other States, as in Ohio, Indiana, Iowa, Dakota, larger numbers of patients are cared for in institutions composed of detached buildings, built to a great extent like an ordinary house.

Two years ago the institution at Toledo was opened. It was constructed upon the same general plan, except that there is no central asylum. There are two detached buildings for excited patients, requiring strongly built apartments, each containing five wards for nineteen patients each. The rest of the buildings for patients are

buildings resembling ordinary residences, arranged in streets. I quote from Dr. Tobey's report: —

The plan of treatment adopted at the organization of this institution and contemplated in the very conception of the peculiar features of its construction has continued in vogue; namely, allowing the patients the largest possible liberty consistent with their respective conditions. At the date of my last annual report, the institution had been opened for patients but ten months and a few days, a time not sufficiently long to warrant me in expressing opinions or drawing conclusions as to the advantages the plan of this asylum possessed over the old or mass building plan. A year and ten months have now elapsed since the opening of the institution; and, barring readmissions, 1,527 persons have been admitted, and 1,097 remain in the institution at the date of this report. I feel, therefore, that the experimental stage is past, and the many advantages of the cottage, or segregate, plan abundantly demonstrated, as I believe will be shown by some of the results attained that will be briefly mentioned.

The feature of this institution which was generally regarded as probably most impracticable, and about which I think even the projectors of the plan felt some misgivings, has proven to be the crowning one. I refer to the associate dining halls, in which fully two-thirds of all the patients in the institution — nine-tenths of all who are physically able — and all the employees take their meals.

These dining halls are entirely detached from the wards and cottages, and the patients from the more remote wards must walk a distance of seven or eight hundred feet to reach them. With our present population, 400 men dine at one time in one of these halls, and nearly 350 women dine in the other. At a signal given by a steam whistle, the patients, with their attendants, start from the wards and cottages to the dining halls, entering the hall from each end, taking their seats at their respective tables as they enter the room, all sitting quietly until the last entering are seated, when a bell is tapped as a signal to begin the meal. When the meal is finished, those nearest the entrance start for their cottages first, ward after ward arising in turn as the way is cleared for them to go out of the dining-room. More than a year ago, as an experiment, the patients from two of the wards from the building for disturbed male patients — there being four wards in the building, each ward originally accommodating eighteen patients — were taken to the general dining hall. No trouble was experienced, and both patients and attendants enjoyed the change. Therefore, the dining-rooms in these wards were converted into dormitories, increasing the capacity of each ward seven beds. Notwithstanding that about 750 patients of all classes take their meals in these dining-rooms, there have not been a dozen instances where it was necessary to remove persons during the year, except in cases of epileptic seizure, which have been surprisingly few, considering the large number of epileptics who take

their meals there. At this season of the year and a little later, it is before daylight when the patients go to breakfast and after dark when they return from supper; yet no one has ever escaped, going to and from meals.

Three-fourths of all the patients in the institution occupy sitting-rooms the windows of which are unprotected by screens or bars; and there has been but one instance of a window being broken by a person attempting to escape.

There are two open cottages for males and one for females, the doors of the cottages being unlocked from morning until night, and the patients occupying them allowed to go in and out at pleasure. Besides these patients, there are many others who have the privilege of the grounds under personal parole. In all there are more than twenty-five per cent. of all the male patients in the institution and about ten per cent. of all the female patients who have this privilege.

During the summer and fall, one-third of the male patients and probably one-fifth of the female patients are employed at something outside of their wards and cottages; yet there have been but twenty-four elopements during the year, a number of those being persons who had recovered and would have been sent home in a short time. With an average of 976 patients for the year and with 1,378 under treatment, we have averaged less than two hours' seclusion per day for one person. There have been but three cases of mechanical restraint,— they of short duration and all surgical cases. Hypnotics or other depressant medicines for inducing quietude or sleep have been administered on an average to less than eight persons per day, no one being given a hypnotic regularly.

There have not been an average of ten persons in the institution who have destroyed their clothing, and less than that number who have not worn their shoes and stockings; and it is hardly necessary to state that lock buckles or other mechanical means to compel them to wear their clothing have not been resorted to.

During the heated season, in the evening, every patient in the institution, who is physically able, can be found out on the verandas of their respective wards and cottages, or wandering about the grounds, when the institution presents much more the appearance of a summer resort than an asylum for the insane.

It has been our aim to give every patient, as far as possible, some healthful employment, believing that there is nothing more prejudicial to a person's well-being, sane or insane, than enforced idleness. Therefore, every person has been encouraged to do something; and the kinds of employment have been as varied as our facilities would permit.

The principal amusements have been our weekly dances, which during the summer season were conducted under an open tent, lighted by electric light, and provided with a suitable platform. During the remainder of the year, we have continued to use one of our associate dining halls, which, with our present population, does

not afford sufficient room, and entails a great deal of labor and inconvenience in its preparation. Early last spring, a cornet band was organized, composed of employees and patients, which gave open-air concerts twice a week during the entire summer. Services were held in the chapel almost every Sunday evening during the year. The celebration of the Fourth of July was ushered in with a ball game in the forenoon, in the square surrounded by the buildings for female patients. In the afternoon there were appropriate exercises in the grove, which were attended by more than one thousand patients. An equally large number witnessed the athletic sports and a display of fireworks in the evening. There was no attempt to escape, or accident or incident occurred to mar the pleasure of the day. Later in the summer, over four hundred patients enjoyed a boat-ride on the steamer "Pastime," which plies between this city and Perrysburg, a distance of nine miles. This steamer was built for a pleasure-boat; and its entire deck is open, without a cabin. A train of cars was run in on the asylum track, which conveyed our people to and from the wharf. Lunch was served on board the boat, and music and dancing made the time pass merrily. All were returned without a mishap of any kind, and everybody enjoyed the outing.

The district of this asylum consists of twenty-six counties, representing a population of about 975,000. Besides receiving all the insane persons of the district, we have received upon an order of the governor, as provided by the statutes, sixteen patients from the Columbiana County Infirmary, fifty-two from the Cuyahoga County Infirmary, and six from the Ashtabula County Infirmary,—counties in the district of the Cleveland Asylum. There were, in all, upwards of four hundred insane persons in these infirmaries; and the seventy-four received were the most violent and troublesome of the number, many of whom had been kept in solitary confinement or restrained by mechanical appliances for years. Within the limits of the district of this asylum are nearly all the oil and gas territory of Ohio, a considerable portion of the iron and coal interests, several large towns and cities noted for their manufacturing, a number of important railroad centres, all the cities and towns on Lake Erie west of Cleveland, and a large portion of the agricultural part of the State. The population of this asylum, therefore, is an average one, every interest, avocation, and class of people being represented; and it is not probable that there is a better general class of patients in this institution than any other institutions of the kind.

The explanation of whatever difference there may be in the condition of the patients, therefore, must be looked for in the difference of their surroundings and environments.

With all the energy shown by different States in providing institutions for the insane, there still remain certain unprovided for in every community. Our accommodations rarely keep pace with the demand caused by the increased number of the insane. The large stereotyped

buildings reproduced in every State, in various sizes, all founded upon the old monastic buildings, the first refuge of the insane, do not commend themselves as the most desirable. Detached buildings grouped around the old institutions are comparatively cheaply made, and add materially to the means of classification of the institution, and can be intelligently supervised. New institutions on detached building plan, though cheaper, more elastic in the adaptation to the wants of various classes, more easily corrected if mistakes are made, will hardly be built rapidly enough for the emergency. The result in many cases is deplorable. In many an almshouse the insane linger and suffer. Now, in some States despairing as to relieving the almshouses of their burdens, it has been attempted to improve their capacity to bear the burden. Certain standards of requirements have been enforced, so that the minimum of discomfort be attained. Buildings as far as possible separate from those for the other inmates have been erected, medical and other care provided, and in all respects but one they are distinct. That one is that their managing body is the same as that which cares for the ordinary pauper of the poorhouse. Now, the ideas of the two are antagonistic. Whichever idea, the poorhouse or the insane asylum, prevails, wrong is done to the other as a rule. But the attempt has been honestly made, with great improvement resulting. In New York, chronic insane are kept in certain counties by permission of the Board of State Charities, who exempt them from the operation of the law requiring the sending of the chronic insane to Willard, provided they provide such accommodations as the board approve, and subject, on failure to keep up to a proper standard, to revocation of such permission. In Wisconsin, by law, chronic cases are removed from the State asylum, when necessary, and placed in county asylums connected with the county almshouse, where they are cared for and receive State aid and the supervision by State officers, "The Board of State Charities," who not only by moral means and strict supervision keep these officers up to their duty, but have an effectual check upon them by the power of removing their patients and withholding the State aid, if they have reason to believe that the patients are neglected. Here, then, we have county administration under State supervision and control. The system has apparently worked well there for several years, and would do so, perhaps, elsewhere if the laws could be made to suit the case. The energy of the gentlemen who introduced the system, in looking after its working, has contributed largely to

this success; but will the system run alone, after they are gone? I fear that after them will come the deluge. An interesting problem, the opportunity for whose solution will, I hope, be long deferred.

Mr. Letchworth, our worthy associate, in his most excellent and luminous work on "The Insane in Foreign Countries," summing up the results of his observations abroad, viewed in the light of his long experience in visiting poorhouses as a member of the Board of Charities of New York, observes: —

If, from the examinations made, one conviction forced itself upon my mind more strongly than another, it was that poorhouse, workhouse, or almshouse care, whether in common with sane paupers or in separate departments, but under the same control and management, is not humane, and is in many ways unsatisfactory. In keeping two classes under the same management, the constant tendency is to the adoption of a uniform standard of care. Provision that would be adequate to the needs of the average poorhouse inmate is quite inadequate to the necessities of the insane. No statute can justly place common paupers and the insane on the same plane. The former come under public care, in the majority of cases through improvidence or physical infirmity, caused by licentious or criminal ways of life: the latter reach a condition of peculiar helplessness and dependence from mental disease, frequently the result of causes for which they are not to blame. The insane are designated by Blackstone as "the victims of accidental misfortune," which cannot be said as a rule of the inmate of a poorhouse. It is, therefore, unjust that the insane should be denied special care and treatment, and that they should be made to bear the stigma consequent upon classification and association with ordinary paupers.

Another plan of relief for a small proportion of cases may be found in the boarding out of patients in suitable families,— a plan which has been found effectual in Scotland in a fair proportion of selected cases. As all these cases are chronic, which have been cared for in the asylums, their removal affords opportunity for the admission of the same number. Three conditions are essential to success: —

1. Care in the selection of the patient.

2. Care in the selection of the family, and the mutual adaptation of patient and family.

3. Vigilant visitation and supervision by the State authorities.

With these conditions precedent, I see no reasons to doubt success. The first and third conditions are readily attained. Is the second one? Are there to be found persons willing and adapted to taking patients? I confess that I have had doubts whether proper homes could

be found; but it has been done in Massachusetts, and doubtless can be done in other localities. Everywhere, probably, there will be some who seek the patients from the merely mercenary motives, and should be the last to be trusted with the charge; but others will come forward with mixed motives doubtless, some of them noble enough. In some States there would be little hazard in the selection of families, and it will be found probably that about from six to ten per cent. of cases that are now in asylums could be treated as boarders. It does not follow that that ratio could or should be maintained; for it requires that the patient should have been, as a rule, in the asylum for some time. In this opinion I am supported by such authorities as Dr. Bucknill, formerly Lord Chancellor's Visitor to lunatic wards of Chancery. The experience of the Lord Chancellor's Visitors proves that judiciously selected cases of tranquil lunacy may be made more comfortable "and happy in very homely places of residence, and at a very moderate cost. Therefore, the development of this system is not for the rich alone, but for all lunatics who are easily manageable and are not dangerous; and it is in the development of this system of domestic treatment that the greatest promise lies of mitigating the unhappy lot of those afflicted with mental disease."

Dr. Blandford, discussing objections to the scheme, says to those who hesitate: "How do you know? Give him a trial. Let the present age release from the asylum's restraint all those capable of enjoying a larger amount of liberty and freer atmosphere than that in which they now fret and chafe."

The plan has been tried for many years in Scotland; and, under the strict supervision of the Commissioners of Lunacy, it has worked exceedingly well for properly selected cases. In Massachusetts it has also been tried. It has succeeded, and is, I believe, growing in favor with those best able to judge of its actual working. It presents great advantages, to my mind, in certain directions.

Among the class of demented are many who, having passed through the active phases of mental derangement, have entered into that form of dementia which is a temporary state, the prelude to recovery, but which may become more or less permanent from non-use of their faculties. Their inertia has continued or simulated dementia. To these, change of residence and re-entrance into the social life of former periods recall their energy, and gradually awaken them from their lethargy.

A poor man seeking employment after an attack of insanity is not so likely to succeed in obtaining it, or, if successful, is viewed with more suspicion than if he had been known to be engaged in working usefully and intelligently as a private boarder in a private family.

There are some mildly demented persons who, after passing through the storms of insanity, retain certain habits. They do not require the restrictions of asylum life, but they do require some reminder about some automatic action to which they are liable in moments of abstraction. The care of Miss Betsey Trotwood exercised on behalf of Mr. Dick, or that Lucy Bertram and others manifested for Dominie Sampson, is amply sufficient to restrict their wandering faculties and bring them into conformity with the world around them. Like the nobles of Laputa, they in their moments of abstraction require a "flapper" to lap them when their attention is required.

I have no time to allude to the progress made of late years in the individual treatment of the insane. The greater individual liberty accorded him, the absence of harsh and irritating restraints in some and the diminished use of them in other hospitals, the more varied occupations provided for him, the greater scope of his amusements and social life,—all these are but developments of the principle which lies at the foundation of the care and treatment of the insane; namely, "that no patient should be restricted in his liberty of action further than is absolutely required for his own protection and benefit and the protection of society." And the application of this rule is year by year receiving a closer study and a broader application.

INSTITUTIONS FOR THE CARE OF EPILEPTICS.

BY JOHN MORRIS, M.D., BALTIMORE.

It is the purpose of this paper to call the attention of the people to the great necessity of special institutions for the care and cure of epileptics.

Of all the unfortunate beings on the earth, there are none so helpless and so hapless as epileptics. Compared with epilepsy, idiocy, even insanity, is a blessing. An epileptic is never free from danger, and must ever be watched and protected. In private life, some

fond mother or female relative is compelled to devote her whole existence to guard him from peril. He cannot be rendered useful in the community. He can be taught no employment, and is shunned and feared by all who come in contact with him, in many instances by those allied to him by the ties of blood. If the epileptic be a female, she is exposed in addition to other and more serious dangers, involving not only her own moral life, but the well-being of society. This can be readily understood, when it is borne in mind that the epileptic is mentally weak, and unable to resist the influences which a strong mind could withstand. The epileptic is always in danger of becoming a criminal.

The number of epileptics is estimated at two to the thousand of the population, and my own experience as a commissioner of lunacy convinces me that this estimate is not too large. This, of course, includes both children and adults. The wealthy classes can care for their unfortunate offspring, but the majority of epileptic children are to be found in the insane asylums and almshouses of the country. In every almshouse in Maryland these poor creatures are to be found. I learn from Dr. Lee, Secretary of our State Board of Lunacy, that their condition is pitiable in the highest degree.

No doubt the condition of epileptics in every part of the country is similar to that in Maryland. I know it is so in the great State of New York. In this State there are twelve thousand or more epileptics. In Maryland there is no child, black or white, that suffers for the want of care, save the epileptic. The insane child, the idiotic child, the blind child, the deaf and dumb child, the orphan and the foundling, the child suffering from the diseases of summer incident to cities, the neglected child, the cruelly treated child, the incorrigible and the vagrant child, are all liberally provided for in suitable institutions and by suitable agencies.

One-half of the applicants for admission to the Home for the Feeble-minded, recently established in Maryland, are victims of epilepsy. These unfortunates cannot be admitted to the institution for the reason that they are a disturbing element, and would exercise an injurious influence on the inmates, and thus retard their recovery. To treat epileptics, you must have an institution solely devoted to their care. The younger epileptics particularly require separate conditions and treatment. The experience at Bielefeld and other epileptic colonies in Germany proves conclusively that great and lasting benefits can be conferred on the epileptic by proper surround-

ings, training, regimen, and employment. At their homes every form of industry and art is cultivated, and all the powers of mind and body developed to the greatest degree possible. The results of this training are really marvellous. A cure is effected in six and one-half per cent. of the cases, and improvement in nearly all. In this country no step has been taken to establish homes for the epileptic, save a small institution recently opened in Massachusetts. This institution was formerly a private one, and accommodates but a small number. This is a beginning that we fondly hope may lead to greater and beneficent results, not only in Massachusetts, but in every State of the Union. Appeals to the legislature in Maryland so far have been unheeded. The tax rate in Maryland is seventeen cents on the hundred dollars. The eighth of one per cent. added to this would have been sufficient to provide amply, liberally, for every insane, idiotic, feeble-minded, and epileptic person within the borders of the State. The want of sympathy in this matter is solely due to a want of knowledge. Evils that are remote remain remote. It is only those who have epileptics in their own families who can know of the sorrow and suffering incident to epilepsy, and properly appreciate the necessity of means to ameliorate the condition of epileptics. It is not only the child, as I said before, but the parent, who is most frequently the sufferer. Some years ago ex-Mayor Latrobe, of the city of Baltimore, called my attention to this matter. He said that frequent appeals were made to him from ladies of the city who had valuable servants with epileptic children, whom they wished to retain in their service, and who desired to know from him in what institution these children could be placed. He was forced to tell them that neither the city nor society had provided a home for unfortunates of this character; and consequently these ladies were obliged to dismiss valued and faithful servants.

Is there no benevolent man or woman with wealth to rise up and help these *Gotteskinder*, these children of God? They can be helped, they can be strengthened, they can be elevated, they can be made happy.

Great advancement in the medical treatment of epilepsy, and a very marked increase of interest in the investigation of the disease, have been manifested in the past few years by the medical profession. Many new remedies, including electricity, are now employed with great success. It is contended by some medical experts that it is often due to ocular defects; and by others it is likened to mi-

graine, on account of its explosive character. As it is intermittent in its nature, it cannot be truly termed an organic disease. Functional trouble can always be alleviated by treatment; and epilepsy must be viewed as functional in its nature. To bring about cure, however, certain surroundings and employments, in addition to medical care, are necessary. It is to be hoped that before the next meeting of this Conference steps will be taken in some portion of the land to found an institution of the character required, and that this will lead to the establishment of other institutions in every State in the Union. Such a work would advance our common humanity, and be crowned with the blessing of God.

XII.

Immigration.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON IMMIGRATION.

BY J. H. VAN ANTWERP, CHAIRMAN.

The subject of immigration has commanded the attention of the Conference from its organization; and its views and opinions in the matter, expressed by its standing committees on immigration, and papers and discussions by its members, from time to time, have made their impress in shaping legislation bearing upon the question. The Boards of Charities of various States have also taken positive measures in this direction; and it was their united action in 1882 that led to the enactment by Congress of the law of that year, regulating immigration and providing more effectual guards against the introduction into this country of pauper, lunatic, and otherwise disabled aliens. The defects in this law have been pointed out in the papers and discussions before the Conference, especially the evils attending its execution by local authorities, the hurried and generally superficial examination of immigrants, the lack of reciprocal action between the authorities of the various ports, and the failure of the statute to provide adequate penalties for its violation.

In 1888, a committee of Congress, of which the Hon. M. H. Ford of Michigan was chairman, made thorough investigation of immigration and the introduction of contract laborers into this country, taking testimony at the various ports, which, with their report upon the same, was submitted to the Congress of that year. A bill framed in accordance with these recommendations, and embodying substantially the views of this Conference, was introduced into that Congress; but the time left for its consideration was so brief that it failed to be acted upon. An increasing interest upon the subject has been shown by the present Congress, resulting in the appointment of standing committees on immigration, both in the Senate and House of Representatives, and of a joint committee having special reference to the question as affecting the port of New York.

Early in the present year, the Secretary of the Treasury decided to assume the control of immigration at the port of New York, through a superintendent of immigration, with a corps of assistants appointed for the purpose. The contract existing with the New York Commissioners of Immigration was terminated on the 18th of April last, since which time the examination and landing of immigrants at that port have been under the direction of such superintendent. The present place of debarkation is at the Barge Office on the Battery; but Congress has provided for the fitting up of Ellis Island in the harbor of New York, which in time will be devoted to this purpose. This action of the Secretary of the Treasury, it is hoped, will lead to better results in protecting the country against the landing of pauper, lunatic, and otherwise disabled aliens, with which its institutions are already heavily and unduly burdened. It is believed that the policy adopted, as regards the supervision of immigration at the port of New York by federal officers, may also be properly extended to Boston, Philadelphia, and possibly other ports, because of the growing numbers of the incoming classes of immigrants, of recent years, from the south and interior of Europe, and of too numerous gypsies and Arabs. It is true that the majority of these persons furnish a class of laborers of a deserving type; but the infiltration of those who are not of that type cannot have escaped the observation of those interested in keeping up the American standard of qualifications of citizenship from degrading competition from abroad.

The difficulty in our assimilation into citizenship of races whose language is almost beyond our ability to acquire, coupled with their inability to acquire ours, with the result of their colonization in our cities by themselves, creating in them what are significantly called "foreign quarters," is fully as menacing as if they were Chinese. Besides this, the padrone system of controlling their movements and labor in groups can be applied, possibly, to harmful purposes, especially in case the padrone should find that supplying voters in groups, who cannot speak the English language, and whose children do not attend our public schools, may be made a profitable business to him,— one that obviously would have impunity or very little restraint, when it is considered that the inspectors of an election for city officers, for instance, or inspectors of any other election, could not avail themselves of legal restrictions on improper voting by persons whose foreign idioms are unintelligible to them, and when the interpreter may be in league with or under the pay of a leader. So long as

these colonies exist in communities by themselves, maintaining their native speech, habits, and observances, apparently permanently alien to their American surroundings, and indifferent to acquiring any knowledge of our language and laws or of our social and political systems, it could well be said that "there is a limit to everything. Enough ignorance may be imparted in time to overwhelm the stability of government itself."

Only through a system of close supervision, by our consuls abroad, of the character of intending immigrants to this country, at their ports of departure, can such as are unfit to come — those designated in the proposed amendments in Congress to our present laws — be excluded, and the evil of unlimited arrivals, of a kind that may be compared to abscesses of festering humanity in the body corporate of municipalities, be kept down.

In the mean time,— that is, until Congress does its duty in protecting as far as possible American ideas, habits, educational systems, and social standards from over-adulteration of the nature described,— reliance must be had on a rigid enforcement by the federal officials, recently appointed, of the laws that are now in force, particularly that of 1882.

EFFECTS OF IMMIGRATION ON THE COMMUNITY.

BY S. C. WRIGHTINGTON, BOSTON.

In the discussion of this subject I shall confine myself chiefly to immigration to the ports of Massachusetts,— its connection with the industrial interests of New England, and its beneficial or baneful effect upon this community. Such reference as may from time to time be made to the larger question of immigration into the United States, and its general effect in connection therewith, will be simply incidental to the discussion of the more immediate question of immigration to New England.

I assume that I am not debarred from this discussion by the fact that immigration into the United States has for a series of years — perhaps from the foundation of our government — been permitted, welcomed, as a means of developing our country, establishing its industries, increasing its wealth, and in its earlier existence was admittedly of advantage to this people.

The continuance of a beneficial system is justifiable only so long as its benefits are real or apparent; and the absence of both causes is a sufficient incentive to the discussion of the propriety of its discontinuance or essential modification. That a community whose infancy has been materially benefited by an intrusion of producers and productions may rightfully close all inlets to its continuance, whenever by reason of riper age such intrusion becomes burdensome or for any reason objectionable, is not a question of casuistry, but a necessity of national existence.

For the first time, perhaps, during historic times has been witnessed legislation discouraging, controlling, obstructing immigration, without having been preceded by legislation inviting, encouraging, stimulating it. And this legislation for the restraint of an immigration is in no wise attributable to the over-population of Europe, whence such immigration has proceeded, or to the purpose of escape from a tyranny at home that had become insupportable from long continuance, but almost entirely because of the greater facilities afforded the struggling artisan and laborer in providing for those dependent upon them, and the making of suitable provision for their own future when by reason of age they might no more labor. That personal freedom and independence of action might also have been inciting causes in some instances is not questioned, but that they contributed to any considerable extent to the later influx of settlers in this community is not sustained by the character of the immigration or by the proclaimed causes as asserted by the arriving aliens.

It is evident that, while the infancy of an immigration proceeding from such causes might be welcomed, and its political, social, and industrial influence upon an infant community be productive of no ascertained evil effect, its long continuance by reason of aggregation alone, irrespective of the large and continually increasing volume which has characterized European immigration into the United States, might produce such changes of condition in these political, social, and industrial relations — by reason of early acquired political opinions, whose origin makes certain their variance with ours, social qualities requiring for their gratification conditions inadmissible here, and industrial habits perhaps wholly justifiable in the surroundings of their former homes, but inimical to the best interests of a community where freedom from combined personal dictation has been its members' boast — as to make necessary actual prohibition of its longer continuance, or such restrictions upon its existence as should inevitably result in its constantly diminishing volume.

What are the statistics of immigration? The total number of immigrants arriving in the United States from the foundation of the government exceeds ten millions. That this statement is literally true, the records of the Treasury Department give evidence. The significance of this statement lies in the fact that fully one-half of this number have so arrived within the last twenty-five years, and in the further fact that, of the present population of the United States, more than twenty millions are of foreign birth or the children of foreign born parents, which enumeration represents fully two-fifths of the number of white inhabitants, and something more than one-half of such inhabitants resident north of latitude thirty-six thirty.

No such wholesale immigration has been witnessed since the migration of nations. None such, from so circumscribed a territorial limit as Great Britain, Germany, and Scandinavia, since the Israelitish exodus.

Since Malthus wrote (1820), "the population of Ireland has quadrupled during the last century," the population has been actually reduced, by emigration to the United States, thirty-three and one-third per cent.,— from nine millions to six millions. And the Inspector-General reports from that island that during a single year (1887), from a country noted for the fecundity of its people and the fertility of its soil, its inhabitancy has been decreased by sixty thousand. There are to-day more of Irish parentage in America than in Ireland.

That this vast army of ten millions was composed almost entirely of the governed, in contradistinction to the governing class, was a necessity of the immigration; and their almost immediate transmission into the governing class with us seemed to be a necessity of our system of government. How far this absence of assimilating tendencies on the part of those seeking asylum here has diverted from its natural direction the onward march of our civilization may be estimated, but not measured. To what extent its continuation and possible increase may affect the future of the nation's progress is more easily determined.

The final arbiter in all questions growing out of the relation of the State and Nation settled for our time the authority to regulate immigration; and Congress, by the passage of the Act of Aug. 3, 1882, devolved upon the Secretary of the Treasury this important duty of "supervision over the business of immigration to the United States." It further authorized him "to enter into contracts with such State

commissions, boards, or officers as might be designated for that purpose by the governor of any State, to take charge of the local affairs of immigration in the ports within said State, and to provide for the support and relief of such immigrants therein landing as might fall into distress or need public aid." In accordance therewith, a contract was executed between said Secretary and the Massachusetts Board of Lunacy and Charity, which contract is in full force to-day.

Feb. 26, 1885, was passed the Act of Congress prohibiting the importation of aliens under contract to perform labor in the United States. The act supplementary thereto, passed Feb. 23, 1887, authorized the Secretary of the Treasury to enter into a similar contract with such State commissions, boards, or officers as might be designated, as aforesaid; but no such contract has been executed in this or any other of the United States. Later, the acting secretary of the Treasury addressed a circular letter "To the Collector of Customs, Commissioners of Immigration, and others," which closes with these words: "Commissioners of Immigration now acting as such at any port of the United States, are requested to aid collectors of customs, and those persons designated by collectors for the service required by the foregoing statutes, so far as may be possible within the scope of their legitimate duties."

How important is this supervision and its attendant duty, inspection of immigrants, can best be answered by poor-law officers and trades-unions. Ocean carriers are directly interested in obtaining full complements of passengers; and when competition is excessive, or when but a limited number of passengers are offering, the temptation to fill their complement, regardless of the character or condition of the passengers, is not easily withstood. Foreign governments have too often permitted, encouraged, their subordinate officials to provide for their criminals, lunatics, and paupers by indirectly aiding in their shipment to the United States; and not seldom have the local governing boards of European countries furnished the means for their transportation, and caused them to be accompanied by officers to their inland destination for the better security against their return.

Perhaps the most marked instance of governmental assistance to emigration is found in the action of the imperial Parliament in the appropriation of one million dollars to be used, in connection with the "Tuke Fund," in the transportation of the suffering poor of the counties of Galway and Mayo to the ports of the United States. During the years 1883–84, seventy-five hundred of this class arrived

at the port of Boston, of which number one hundred and twenty were almost immediately reshipped to their Irish homes.

So close was the supervision and so strict the inspection that the secretary for Ireland admitted on the floor of the House of Commons that it was useless to continue the assistance, as the least desirable of those previously assisted to emigrate had already returned. But, whether such immigration be voluntary or otherwise, it is beyond all question that a larger proportion of the immigrants from Great Britain, Germany, and Scandinavia are dependants or offenders than of the citizens of Massachusetts, which is but another way of stating the fact that the mass of immigrants are of the class but one degree placed above actual want, and that the merest accident of life must inevitably precipitate them into the abyss of pauperism. In a large number of cases there is no such knowledge of our language and habits, or our methods of business and division of labor, as will enable immigrants successfully to compete with others in this respect more happily situated. Want of acclimation produces bodily disease, aggravated in many instances by a longing for their native land, often developing into some form of insanity, which is cured only by a return to their former homes. In times of great business depression, this class is the first to be affected. The roving habits acquired elsewhere resume their wonted strength, and result too often in the rejection of an assured but moderate present support for an uncertain and precarious future.

What are the statistics of pauperism in Massachusetts?

In Massachusetts, during the last twenty-five years, the number of insane supported at the public expense has increased from eleven hundred to thirty-six hundred; and the whole number of persons, sane and insane, thus fully supported, from forty-five hundred to twelve thousand. During the same period, the number of persons partially supported at the public expense has increased from twenty-one thousand to fifty thousand, and the expense to the public for the support of this vast army of dependants on our charity has increased annually from one-half a million dollars in 1864 to one and three-quarters of a million in 1889; and this while the population of the State has increased only from one and a quarter millions to two millions, and its wealth from ten hundred millions to eighteen hundred millions. That is to say, while during the last quarter of a century the population of Massachusetts has increased but 60 per cent., and its wealth but 80 per cent., its expense for pauper support has increased 250 per cent.

In evidence that this great increase in pauper expenditure is largely consequent upon the wholesale introduction of aliens into the United States, I furnish the following statement.

Of the 1,318 insane persons of the several cities and towns of Massachusetts, committed to the State hospitals during the past year, and chargeable to pauper account, 706 were born in the United States, 109 were born in the Canadas, 71 in Great Britain, 325 in Ireland, and 24 in Scandinavia. The population of Massachusetts during that period may be estimated at two millions, of which number 1,450,000 were born in the United States, 150,000 were born in the Canadas, 85,000 in Great Britain, 260,000 in Ireland, and 15,000 in Scandinavia. So that of the native born there were committed one out of 2,054, of the Canadian born one out of 1,376, of the British born one out of 1,196, of the Irish born one out of 800, and of the Scandinavian born one out of 625 of their respective inhabitants. In other words, while the percentage of the commitments of Scandinavian birth was sixteen one-hundredths of one per cent. of their inhabitants, that of Irish birth thirteen one-hundredths of one per cent., of British birth eight one-hundredths, and of Canadian birth seven one-hundredths, the percentage of commitments of the native born inhabitants was less than five one-hundredths of one per cent. of their population.

I account for the marked disproportion in the commitment of the insane of Scandinavian and Canadian birth by the influence of climatic changes and home longings on the one and of realized or assured opportunities for home return on the other.

But a comparison of parentage is still more significant. Of these 1,318 insane persons, the parents of 24 were born in Scandinavia, the parents of 552 were born in Ireland, of 87 were born in Great Britain, of 130 were born in the Canadas, of 171 in other foreign countries, and of 354 in the United States. That is to say that, while the percentage of population of foreign and native born parents is practically the same, the percentage of annual commitments of pauper insane of foreign and native born parents is as 74 to 26. Otherwise stated, while of the population the foreign and native parent nativity is equal, of the annual commitment of pauper insane of foreign and native parent nativity the proportion is almost three to one.

The act prohibiting the importation of aliens into the United States under contract to perform labor therein, although for several

years upon the statute book, remains practically a dead letter. While fully appreciating the motives actuating trades-unions in procuring this enactment, and keenly alive to the difficulties attending its execution, I cannot but think that it is but another attempt to destroy a noxious tree by lopping off certain of its superfluous branches.

If the labor market of this country is overstocked, if there are to-day proportionally more laborers seeking employment than employers seeking laborers, what matter is it whether the incoming of other laborers from labor markets still more overstocked is consequent upon contracts entered into at home or abroad? Except in the case of skilled labor, not otherwise obtainable, to be employed in new industries,— which is among the exceptions provided for in the law,— what reasonable probability is there of textile manufacturers resorting to foreign lands for operatives, except to counteract the effect of a strike among their employees? and in view of the utter failure of such attempts in the past, before the passage of the contract labor law, what incentive have they to attempt it in the future? The futile endeavors of marble and freestone manufacturers (and I am cognizant of no other attempt on the part of artisan employers to fill their shops from European markets) must paralyze all future efforts in that direction.

The fishermen who make their way annually from the Provinces to Boston or Gloucester, to spend the summer in fishing, and return to their homes in the fall; the lumbermen who cross our border line from the Canadas in the fall, to recross in the early spring,— are too unimportant numerically to be quoted as factors in matters of such moment as that at present considered.

An overstocked labor market, premising that such exists, and has for its cause the daily additions thereto from Europe, can be relieved by no such measure as the contract labor law. Some more drastic principle must be adopted, a more comprehensive system organized, and a more effective execution applied.

Our New England employers (manufacturers) find but little difficulty in preventing undue competition by the introduction of manufactured goods from other countries, through the enactment of laws assessing a tax on such manufactured articles when so introduced. The same principle applied to the introduction of foreign laborers as has for many years been applied to the introduction of foreign products would place the New England laborer on an equality before the law with his employer, the manufacturer.

In the early history of immigration the capitation tax at the ports of Massachusetts was five dollars, the passage money was forty dollars, and the length of the voyage from Liverpool to Boston exceeded thirty days. At the present time the capitation tax is fifty cents, the passage money is twenty dollars, and the time spent on the passage is ten days. Restrictive legislation, in connection with immigration, seems not to have commended itself to our law-makers; for, while the evils attending immigration are admitted, and the natural obstacles to its encouragement have been gradually overcome, the simple artificial obstacle, created by the earlier legislation, has been periodically diminished until it has ceased to be any obstacle whatever.

All experience has shown that the imposition of a tax on merchandise imported into this country is a sufficient protection to the home manufacturers of such articles as enter into competition therewith; and the same principle applied to imported labor, or immigration, will effect the same results in the labor markets of New England, whenever that principle is intelligently and faithfully applied.

Admitting that immigration is a matter of national importance, the fact still remains that it is more immediately a matter of State concern. If from immigration proceed to a greater or less extent our increase in population and wealth, the building of railroads, the opening of mines, the manufacture of iron, the busy hum of the spindle, and the extension of the hundred and one industries that cover the land, from immigration also flow to a greater or less extent, and in ever increasing volume, the evils that unequally inflict the communities that make the grand total we call Nation. While its benefits are widely scattered, increasing in value as they increase their distance from the seaboard, its legacies of crime and pauperism are bestowed in unstinted measure on the communities whose homes first receive the shock of their invasion. While to these separate communities are delegated the authority to punish crime and repress pauperism, while upon them are imposed the obligation of caring for the needy and the burden of supporting the poor, these communities most subject to such impositions are the most interested in reducing to their minimum these evils admittedly attending immigration; and their officers, actuated by the more powerful motive of self-interest in the protection of the community they are appointed to guard, are the more efficient agents in the examination and scrutiny of a people from whose coming so little good is expected and so great a harm feared.

If it be true that this work can be better done by State than

by national officers, it is equally true that it can be done more economically, as witness the work of the Massachusetts State Board of Charities during the past year. With three officers, whose united salaries amount to less than $3,000, with other expense for interpreter, rent of office, and incidental matters, not exceeding $700 additional, one thousand vessels from foreign ports have been visited, an examination of seventy-five thousand passengers made, the landing of criminals, lunatics, paupers, and contract laborers prevented, and all as incident to the larger and more comprehensive work deputed the board.

Should an unfortunate become sick, disabled, or insane, the hospital or almshouse that receives him is under the control of the board that supervised his landing; and the office that records his admission to a hospital, the progress or remittance of his disease, and his discharge therefrom, also contains the record of his arrival on our shores, and his mental and physical condition at that period. I question if any seaboard State would be justified in relinquishing its admitted right, recognized in the United States Supreme Court, to protect itself from an inroad of pauperism from a foreign land; and such protection can only be had in Massachusetts by the continuance of a system of State supervision which has existed here for more than half a century, and which is temporarily suspended only because its officers are performing the same duties under the supervision of the United States Secretary of the Treasury as were heretofore performed under the supervision of the Chief Executive of the Commonwealth. Of course, any such dual arrangement would be unwise and injudicious if better could be substituted; and the present arrangement seems admirably adapted to the purpose.

Repeated attempts on the part of the Congress of the United States to obtain information on this subject on which to base future legislation, as evidenced by the appointment of committees for that purpose by this and the preceding House of Representatives, and the numerous presentation of bills in that branch, indicate clearly the increased consideration given the subject by the people of the United States, and inspire hope in the ultimate solution of a problem that has prompted much discussion and severely taxed the ingenuity of politicians and statesmen in the enactment of laws which, while insuring protection to American citizens, would not infringe on the guarantee privileges of sister nations.

Provided always that constitutional provisions and treaty obliga-

tions are not violated in their procurement, it would seem beyond question that the well-being and happiness of our people were the first considerations, and that longer delay in the adoption of repressive measures affecting immigration commensurate with the evil its unchecked continuance entails might intensify the conviction already prevailing, that in popular estimation industrial products are of greater concern than industrial producers, and the acquisition of wealth of higher consideration than the ennoblement of man.

Human wisdom is not a creation, but a growth; knowledge, but a summary of observation or experience, or deductions from either or both. Our country is rich beyond precedent; but the distribution of its wealth is monstrous in its inequality. The land is filled with complainings, and there is no suggestion of cessation. Pauperism, with its twin offsprings, melancholia and dementia, march hand in hand. That this condition is aggravated by the inflow of foreign laborers is believed. Locating an evil is a step in the direction of its abatement. The discovery of a single cause, however disproportionate to the effect, compels attention. The fine-drawn distinctions between aliens arriving by land and aliens arriving by water are interesting only to specialists. Time is an important factor; and promptness of execution may compensate for insufficiency of means. The extreme remedy is prohibition; and the means for practical prohibition are ample for the purpose. Capitation tax is but another name for specific duty. This Congress can extend the provisions of section one, chapter three hundred and seventy-six, of the laws of eighteen hundred and eighty-two to passengers coming into the United States from Mexico and the Dominion of Canada, and increase the duty therein levied upon such passengers from fifty cents to ten dollars.

That such legislation will inaugurate an era of peace toward men I do not expect; but that such enactment will be welcomed by thousands as an earnest of a better time coming I do believe.

XIII.

Prisons and Prisoners.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PRISONS AND PRISON DISCIPLINE.

BY H. F. HATCH, WARDEN, JACKSON, MICH.

It would be very difficult to write a simple report on prisons and prison discipline. A few facts and figures collected and collated without great expense or labor would make it. These statistics would relate to the cost of building and maintaining prisons, to means and measures for preventing escapes and assaults, to improvements in prison government already established and to be attempted, to sanitary questions, and to kindred subjects. Such a report, thoroughly and honestly made, and leaving the bare bones of the statistical frame suitably covered with reflections and deductions, would be accepted by many — by too many — intelligent men, not only as satisfactory, but as exhaustive. And *that* is the pity of it.

We invite them to turn the telescope of thought this way, until they shall see as we do: that our theme has breadth and depth and height,— breadth, for it deals not alone, nor chiefly, with the interests of those who dwell on those forlorn acres and within those frowning walls which make the convicts' home, but first and chiefly with interests that pertain to every citizen of every commonwealth, and so to the whole civilized world; depth, for it lays hold on the fundamental, and sometimes obscure, principles of social science, of psychology, and of mental pathology; height, for it rises to the level of the noblest human emotions, and has dealing with that high court where eternal justice presides with pity and with mercy on either hand.

To make our report exhaustive is out of the question. To select the topics of which it will treat is necessary. To choose those of widest interest, from the discussion of which the most general and permanent improvement may be expected, is the plain dictate of

common sense. Your committee has endeavored to construct its report in accordance with that dictate.

We quote from a letter of Charles Aull, warden of the Folsom Prison, California. In reply to an invitation to express his opinion as to the proper scope of the report, he says: —

I think the organized bodies of prison educators should select some one or two central ideas, which go to the root of prison discipline and management, and confine themselves to that alone, until public sentiment has been thoroughly aroused and crystallized around it. The most important of these, in my judgment, is the selection of the officers and attachés of a prison. No statutory enactment, however stringent it may be, will avail anything, if it is to be carried into effect by an incompetent warden, surrounded by officers and guards that are forced upon him by political bosses. It is the personality of the warden that makes itself felt through every department of prison management, whether it be for good or evil. I cannot better express my ideas than to quote from the last report of the Board of Public Charities of the State of Illinois: —

"That a man has rendered good and efficient service to his party may entitle him to recognition; but it does not qualify him for the responsible duties of prison warden, a position that ought to command the very best talent, character, and devotion that any State possesses and can give to the work. The ideal warden must have the ability to govern men which belongs to a general, the knowledge of the law which would qualify him for the bench, the purity and elevation of character which ought to be found in every clergyman, the financial skill and integrity of a banker or manufacturer, the tact of a successful politician, and the education of a college president or professor. These varied gifts are not found in combination in any one man; but, the more nearly a warden approaches this ideal, the better it will be for his prison, his prisoners, and the public."

These views of Warden Aull coincide with those of the committee. We have quoted the passage to approve its sentiments, to set them in the forefront of our report, and to make them our guide in the selection and treatment of the topics on which we touch.

The "selection of the officers and attachés of a prison," then, is the principal theme of our report. We demand, and the interests we represent demand, the very highest abilities obtainable in these officers; and we are ready to stand by that method of selecting them which will give to this work men approaching nearest to the high ideal set forth in the Illinois report quoted above.

With such officers in charge of every department of prison government in this country, all possible reforms in criminal administration

will follow. It is of little use to discuss criminal law reform, crime causes, classification, or any abstract system of prison discipline or management, until this is secured; for the best system will certainly fail in the hands of incompetent or feeble officers, and it is reasonable to claim that any system, however poor it is in itself, will be reasonably successful if conducted by thoroughly competent men, who have a lofty conception of public duty.

The standard by which the warden is selected must be changed from that of party service to that of qualifications, natural and acquired, which will enable him to perform the varied and complicated duties of his position, not in the interests of a party, but in the interests of the people.

Men selected by such a standard will soon produce the system. They will love the work, and with tireless energy and unlimited resource overcome all difficulties and finally evolve the best possible methods obtainable in this civilization. Before such a change can be brought about, the public must be made to see the necessity of it; and where can the public educators be found who will show to the public that a change is needed? Its instruction must certainly come from those who, by experience, are acquainted with the conditions; and these are, for the most part, themselves the product of the very system to be attacked. Selected in accordance with the political standard, they were, when appointed, thoroughly committed to it, personally they believed in it, and in assuming their duties they leave behind them a personal history completely in accord with it.

Nevertheless, from this class competent instructors will come. From the very desire to aid his party there would come to a good man, thus appointed, an earnest desire to improve his institution, as a warrant for the continuance of his party in power. The study and thought thus required, the constant application and fidelity to every detail, would soon educate him to see that he was not simply engaged in keeping prisoners, but that he was employed in a great sociological problem, the solution of which found its greatest barrier in the very standard of official selection by which he had himself obtained place. The peril of attempting to break it down, or in failure to recognize it, will be readily understood; but he will have grown in the process until he is willing to take the consequences of right action.

The vital importance of furnishing this instruction to the public appears from the following considerations: all public institutions

must be on a plane with the public conscience, because the officers selected to govern must be the expression of that conscience; and the selection of the governing officer will define the policy and determine the drift, whether he be weak and feeble or strong and competent.

The reforms in penal administration during the last century must be attributed mainly to the improved social and political conditions, which make the older prison systems impossible (as then administered), rather than to the introduction of a distinctively new and improved system.

New methods have been introduced in this country, and carried forward to success in isolated cases, as the result of exceptional force and energy of officers fortunately chosen; but they can hardly be considered general enough to modify the statement.

In a modified form, we are generally conducting our penal institutions on the same principles which governed them a century ago. Our punishments are less brutal, and there is more order and cleanliness; but it is still a government of force, and not of education and persuasion. The wardens and superintendents of these institutions know this, and wish to remedy it. As a rule, they have the ability and force necessary to the work; but they are opposed at every step in their progress, not only by the opposite party, but by their own party. By their own party, because the new requirements would make it impossible to furnish place to broken-down political workers, who are incapable of further service, and who, because of their incapacity, demand place on a prison force, and urge as a reason why it should be granted the very condition which utterly disqualifies them to hold a place among a body of men engaged in duties requiring great physical and mental energy. From the opposite party, because, right or wrong, they regard it a solemn duty to hit every head in sight.

New and improved methods in prison management will and must be introduced, and become operative just in proportion as the governing force of the prisons become elevated in understanding of duty; and this must be determined and modified by the social conditions which give them place, and the public opinion, which, after all, must mainly control their action.

The warden and the convict are both the product of this civilization, and both must submit to the governing power, which is public opinion. A prison system that is desirable and successful in one

State and under one warden may not be desirable or even possible in another State and under another warden. A system that relies upon persuasion and education as its first duty, elevates the conscience, stimulates hope, and seeks to build up a high morality in its population, to restrain them when in liberty, can only succeed in States where the people value these things in their own homes.

Political parties seem necessary to the proper government of a State; and, when a majority of its citizens create and sustain them for the uses which they subserve, and become partisans themselves for the good of the State, and not the good of the party, the institutions which will be created by such a condition will be conducted on the highest possible plane, because such a society will demand such institutions, and will furnish officers able to produce them. The elevation of human society to such a standard would of itself solve the problem; for, in such a condition, the standard of fitness would be the only one considered.

In the present condition of society in most of the States, we may be able to establish the idea in the public mind that the permanent protection of the people requires that every criminal serving a time sentence should be corrected at the end of it, if possible, and that such duties require as much ability and as diversified talent as those of any profession, and that the officers will be improved as much by experience and study as the teachers in the public school system and in the colleges of the country, who are now, by the force of public opinion, selected by the standard of merit alone.

The lower the general morals of society, the less attention to public and private purity, the less regard for public welfare, the closer will be drawn the party lines, until it will seem that the State was created for the party rather than the party for the State. In such a society, the institutions must be conducted for the party rather than for the public good.

In States where the masses serve their party as a means to an end, and not as the end, where the people in the main desire and work for party success because they see in that a public success and the means of accomplishing needed reforms, party lines will lie lightly, and men will decline to support a party except as it meets these requirements. In such a State, the people may be easily aroused to regard the penal question as a problem requiring the best and ablest of its citizens for its solution; and they will furnish the men, without regard to party bias, who are able to bring the highest results out

of established systems, and who will be able by observation and experience to establish a better system. They may easily be induced to divorce prisons from politics and from the baneful influence of party manipulation; and a public sentiment may be cultivated which will sustain a system so flexible as to adjust itself to every grade of intelligence and morals that comes under its influence, and which can only reside in the administration which gives it force.

In a word, because our social and political conditions are not likely, by their natural operations, to place the best talent and experience available in charge of our penal institutions, we hope to impress upon the public the necessity of securing the needed qualifications by some better method.

With the necessity for instruction shown, and with the great body of experienced prison officers and penologists uniting in an effort to perform this most important duty, what are the considerations by which we are to enforce the lesson?

It may be asked, What has been wrong all these years that we must depart from the old way? and we are bound to answer. Our answer may include all that distinguishes the later views of the aims and methods of prison management from those which prevailed before them. They may be summarized as follows:—

Confinement in prison is justified as a necessity. It is a process intended to protect society from criminals.

Confinement and punishment and reformation are all processes by which protection is sought. They are not objects. Confinement follows a judicial inquiry which establishes guilt, because the safety of society requires it. The punishment caused by the operation is not retributive: it is necessary. No man is made happy by the mere suffering of another man, which has no purpose; nor is society benefited in any way, except as its security is preserved. There must be some distinct object to be accomplished when a punishment is inflicted, else there would be no way to determine the amount or duration of it. If the object is simply to correct evils in men, to adjust and readjust a criminal population to the conditions which must environ them in free life, and to obtain compliance with the necessary rules of good order in prison, a perfect measure of judgment is furnished; and the punishment must always be beneficent and just, because the amount is determined by the man himself who suffers. It is right to compel obedience; and any punishment necessary for such a purpose can never be excessive. And, when compliance is obtained, the punishment must have been sufficient.

The criminal is wrong, and he must be made right. The process may be one of great suffering or it may be one of great pleasure; but these considerations are neither here nor there. He must be cured.

Permanent security to society requires that criminal tendencies be eradicated, or at least modified, during confinement; for certainly characteristics which permit one crime will permit it again. Confinement is temporary and for a fixed period. Freedom will come in time, and with it a renewal of old vices and associations, unless new purposes and hopes have been acquired.

The notion that extreme severity acts as a deterrent, and may be relied upon for protection, has little support in observed facts. The Russian government, no doubt, expects to stamp out the revolutionary party in the empire by punishments so terrible in their character that they cannot be endured; but such severities are the fuel which feed the flame of revolution, and do more to strengthen the revolutionary party than any act of their own could do.

If it is claimed that these punishments are unusual, brutal in severity, and degrading in character, it will be observed that they differ only in degree from some which have been, and still are, administered among us. Any suffering inflicted upon one man for the purpose of terrorizing another, or which is for any reason carried beyond the line of necessity in obtaining compliance with established rules and laws, is unjust and brutal, and will tend to increase crime rather than to diminish it.

If unjust and unnecessary punishment in any case acts as a deterrent, it seems that no measure of judgment can limit the principle; and, logically, we must conclude that the severities at the Siberian mines should be increased, and that finally they would certainly reach the limit of human endurance, and so produce the result which, if the principle is correct, must follow. But the trouble is, the principle is incorrect; and its operation is harmful, tending to cause the very conditions which its application is intended to prevent, in exactly the proportion of its application.

We are very likely to imagine that because a proper and reasonable punishment produces a powerful restraint among men, from the emotions of fear which are aroused by it, increasing the punishment to any extent would increase the fear, and, therefore, the restraint, without seeming to remember what we have all observed, and very well know from our own experience, that excessive punishment will

also arouse emotions of hatred and revenge, which will overcome fear and render it entirely inoperative. In order to produce the greatest deterrence, it is equally important that punishment be sufficient, and that it be not regarded as excessive.

The most enlightened governments among men recognize the true principle, and so establish public schools, and its citizens build churches and missions to teach the true standard of ethical conduct to all its citizens. It supplies force when these agencies fail, but it is plain that the entire nation will be happier when the necessity for force is reduced.

It seems that this should also be the theory in prison government; that for the purpose of preparing criminals for citizenship, as well as for the preservation of good order in prison, education and culture are by far more effective and permanent than force, which should only be applied when the better methods have been exhausted. It seems in the interest of the State that the most vicious and dangerous elements of its population should, if possible, be taught the duties of a citizen before they are given liberty and called upon to perform such duties. Their conduct has shown them to be especially deficient; and, now that they are in prison, every method known to civilization should be employed to correct them, and we ought not to deprive them, as we now do, of many opportunities which are supplied to citizens who are already very much their betters. In considering this matter, we may safely leave the interests of the convict entirely out of the question.

In the shadow of your Christian churches the criminal has deliberately chosen his profession. In spite of all the civilizing influences, in spite of schools and churches, and all the correctional and elevating tendencies of a great State, he is a public plunderer still.

Now is there anything in this statement that of right should call in question the desirability of all these opportunities for culture? Should they be discontinued or changed? Would you level your schools and colleges and churches, because he has refused to be educated? You urge the necessity for schools, because intelligence is better than ignorance. You build churches, because morality and godliness are better than vice. Now, at what time in a man's life does all this change? How bad must he be, that the religion of Jesus Christ is a failure as applied to him? Can he be so densely ignorant that intelligence will not improve him? If these systems for human culture are desirable outside a prison, why not inside? The present

school of criminalists simply carry into the prison the very best methods for the betterment of men which you employ outside a prison. You use them to prepare men for citizenship while in freedom to choose. We accept that portion of your population who have refused to avail themselves of these methods, and, while in confinement and under more perfect restraint, use more powerful motives to induce them to accept.

Regarding your methods, then, as the proper ones, we find the criminal, godless, and profane, and we try to induce him to be religious. We find him ignorant, and we try to make him intelligent. We find him filthy, and we try to teach him to be clean. Many times we find him debased and vile, and we try to elevate him, to widen out the horizon of his life, and teach him a proper regard for the rights of others,— that he may live among you as a citizen, and not as a pirate. We imagine that this is in your interest as it is in his.

Two reasons alone can be urged why all this is not desirable in prison. One must be that the methods of education are themselves defective; and the other must be that culture itself is undesirable among a population who are convicts to-day, but will be citizens to-morrow. It is impossible to separate the interests of the individual from the interests of the nation. Permanent individual happiness to all, with the least suffering to any, is the true object; and this can only be obtained by a unity of interests between classes and societies, — men doing the right thing as the result of culture, not force; from attraction, not fear. It must be a freedom in motives and feelings,— feelings and ideas trained into habits in harmony with true interests.

Now, this is the essential difference between the prison governments which have been, and which very largely now are, and the governments which it is believed should be. The difference is not in degree, but is distinctive. One is coercion and force, the other is persuasion and education. One seeks to govern by fear, and so punishes for every violation, however slight: the other seeks to govern by intelligence, and so patiently labors to teach. One practically establishes a scale of punishment for each offence, which makes it easy to pass the prisoner directly from violation to an amount of suffering that shall compensate.

The other attempts to discriminate in motives and feelings and character, and only punishes when necessary to obtain compliance. In one case, if a prisoner refuses to work, he would be sent to punishment, to remain until he would work, and then until vengeance

was satisfied, and then until his great suffering would terrorize the others; and then he would be sent to the shop with the assurance — which abundant experience proves false — that he was conquered and would never again dare to come in conflict with authority. He believed in some way that he was being wronged when he refused. From his standpoint, it appeared that the work was exceptionally hard and that the demand was unjust, or that the task had been increased, or, if his work had been changed, that the foreman had done so purposely, to put a hardship upon him. It is not likely that any of these things were true; and, if the warden or deputy should reason with him, he would no doubt perceive it, and cheerfully comply. He would then see that he was himself wrong, which is the beginning of wisdom; and the process would tend toward permanently changing and broadening his character, so that he would be less likely to violate in other things. He would also see that there was a disposition to perfect fairness,— that no more was demanded of him than was equitable and just.

Punishment and personal suffering could in no way affect his judgment as to the justice of the order. It might compel obedience, but it could not convince. The prisoner would, therefore, still be in rebellion, although apparently in compliance; and the whole process would be, and is, a temporary makeshift.

If the prisoner refuses to be persuaded, if it is impossible to educate him to obey, suffering must be inflicted. And now another essential separation from the principles of a punitive prison must become operative, and the prisoner must understand that there is nothing vindictive in the operation; that his punishment is not retributive nor exemplary, but simply correctional; that it is not for violation, but to secure future compliance; that it will continue until compliance is had, however severe, and will then stop; that he must himself determine the extent, and that therefore it is self-inflicted; that the rules are just and necessary, and compliance is necessary; that education and persuasion have failed, and that he forces upon himself the suffering which the warden regrets, and dislikes to administer, and which, it would seem, any intelligent man would dislike to endure.

Such punishments may be much more severe and much longer continued than those employed by the punitive systems, because they are applied for a purpose, and will only terminate when that has been accomplished; but force and fear do not tend to permanently prepare

men for the duties of free life, nor to bring them into an orderly observance of rules necessary to their government in prison, and they should therefore be avoided, if possible.

The character of a criminal must be changed. The dominant purposes and loves must be replaced by others, and the criminal instincts must be disciplined out of him, and the moral bias of his life corrected. He has been years acquiring an evil character and confirming hereditary taints, and the process of change must be slow and painful. Whether in freedom or in confinement, his acts are the expression of his character, and must be on the moral plane of his own will. If this is bad, the acts will be bad; and, if it is good, the acts will be good. If he be compelled to a good act by force or fear, it tends but slightly to improve him; for it is the will of another, not his own, which produces the action. His own improvement requires that he himself understand the moral standards which require the action, and that the action be the result of emotions in his own life and the operations of his own will, and not that of another. In order to teach him to do right, he must have the power to do wrong. An essential quality in the process is the preservation of his autonomy to the very line of safety.

Let us state it clearly: The object of imprisonment is the protection of society, which can only be secured by confinement or by reformation. Confinement is, in the main, temporary. Therefore, the only permanent protection must be obtained by reformation. Severities may at times be necessary to the process of reformation, but the reliance must be upon an education and a growth which will tend to permanently change the character. This necessitates the introduction into prison government of all the civilizing influences known to our times.

For the purpose of this report, it is necessary that this be established. But very little culture is required to punish a prisoner, to govern by force, to merely keep the men and terrorize them into compliance; but the best the land affords is necessary to arouse emotions of hope and keep it sustained, to educate and elevate, to classify and assign the almost infinite varieties of temperament and character which go to make up a prison population.

No system can do this; for a system must be fixed, and will operate upon all material alike, and involves the idea that all men are alike, and may be put into the same hopper and ground through the same machinery to the same results. It would be like assuming that the

physical defects of men were alike, and that it is possible to combine in medicine a remedy for all.

Whatever else he is, the skilled physician must be a student. He must have acquired a thorough knowledge of the structure of the human body, the bones and muscles, the arteries, the veins, and all the complicated machinery by which it is kept in operation. In addition, he must understand the symptoms of disease which attack it, and the proper remedies under all the different conditions of physical vigor presented. He can rely on no system, but on a trained judgment, which will perceive the situation and suggest relief.

The mental and moral defects of men are much more varied and complicated than the physical ones, and can never be subjected to a fixed system without furnishing abundant reason for failure, because it is a system. In several of the reformatories, schools of technology have been established, and cannot be too highly commended. Their value, however, is entirely determined by the ability of the superintendent in assigning inmates to the different trades. Suppose, from indifference or inability, the superintendent should assign them as they arrived, without judgment as to their capacity, and men of coarse fibre and dense ignorance, large bones and strong muscles, were found in telegraphy and printing, and youths of fair education, small bones, and weak muscles in blacksmithing.

We do not wish to be understood as undervaluing system in managing prisoners or in doing any kind of work. The notion we attack is that, if we devise a good system, it will of itself accomplish the desired result, even when managed by any sort of inexperienced bungler; and we wish to enforce this idea, that, the more complete the system, the better is the opportunity afforded for the highest intelligence and the nicest discrimination to do their perfect work.

For instance, the mark system, in the hands of injudicious or careless officials, will scarcely tend to diminish the difficulties of prison management or to secure better results; but that system applied with judgment and attention will tend powerfully to develop in prisoners the very quality of mind and habits of thought and action which we wish to encourage in them. It enables the superintendent to keep a complete and concise record of merit and demerit, that he may know the progress of every inmate. More than any other known system, it seems to impress the men with the true theory of punishment,— that their progress and happiness depend upon themselves, and that suffering and deprivation are self-inflicted and are

conjoined to violation, that they are not at war with the administration; and it makes it easy to establish the idea that the interests of all are identical. It is a delicate machine, through which the superintendent can watch, educate, and guide his men, and which will indicate to him their real standing; but it is only a machine.

The entrance of a man to prison instantly raises questions to which nothing but closest discernment and experience can find the proper answers. Each man upon entering must be examined, to determine his mental and moral grade, and general temperament, which is to govern his treatment; his natural aptitude for labor, to govern his assignment. He must then be watched continuously, restrained or stimulated as the case requires. The old life must be interrupted and broken in upon, and a new life begun. He must be forced, if necessary, to take on new habits; and the exercise of a trained judgment is absolutely necessary to guide him at every stage of advancement. In the hands of a bungler, the system would be valueless.

Real criminals rarely reform, possibly never. They are born to their avocation, as a wolf is born a wolf. They constitute only a small portion of any prison population, and more of them are at large than in confinement. They accept crime as their profession, and rotate from place to place, serving short sentences here and there. When arrested, as occasionally happens, they are entire strangers to the court officers. Possibly, with the assistance of their associates, they are able to prove an alibi, or, if not, they appeal to the sympathies of the court as a first offender, who has been led astray by stress of circumstances, with much more power than could a less experienced criminal. The short sentence which follows is soon over, and they are on the road again. They never locate long enough to be known, but move on to new fields, where they will not be recognized.

The industrial classes accumulate property by energy and thrift, and surround it with reasonable protection; but trained operators, students at a nefarious trade, supplied with ingeniously constructed tools, watch for an unguarded moment to appropriate the product of other men's labors. They never labor themselves, and are proud to claim that they live by their wits. Many times they are recognized at the prison door, but their sentence has then been named; and, when it has terminated, the rights of American citizenship are restored, and the prisoner marches out to renew his old life. It is certain that he will do so. He claims nothing else, and, while in

confinement, recounts his adventures with great gusto, and pants for the time when he may renew them. Why is he liberated? The right to liberty should depend upon the proper use of it. A man who is at war with the race, whose hand is against the world, should be in permanent confinement. This would meet favor in the minds of most thinkers if its operation could be shown to work justly. It has found expression in several States of the Union in habitual criminal acts, which provide for a life sentence upon the third conviction.

The weakness of these laws is apparent in the fact that they have no power to reach the most dangerous class, as under them the trial judge must himself know of former convictions; and he must learn this in the few days at his disposal after arrest, which confines the operation mainly to local criminals.

The remedy for these difficulties seems to lie in the indefinite sentence, under which the convict may be required himself to furnish his history, accounting for his whole life, to be verified by correspondence. It also affords abundant time to learn positively all circumstances which of right should be considered in fixing his term, which is now to continue until the purposes of the process are accomplished; and he would be left to choose for himself between a proper observance of law in liberty and permanent confinement. We are now to consider his whole life as it bears on his character, his acts while confined, his progress in mental and moral development, and, in fact, every condition which would determine his ability to adjust himself to the requirements of free life, and not simply the isolated crime of which he has been charged. He should be retained until he gives evidence of a determined purpose to observe law; and then he should be paroled, which will enable him to establish the permanence of his new resolution under all the temptations and difficulties which would then surround him. If he is still incapable, and is found in violation of the terms of his parole, he should be taken back into the prison without further expense.

The adoption of the Bertillon system of identification by all the prisons, and the establishment of a central office, to which all descriptions are sent, would destroy the last hope of a professional criminal escaping the operation of these laws. If he should obtain parole, and in violation of its terms escape into another State and lapse into crime, his first conviction would terminate his career. The prison to which he is now sent would forward his description to the central office, where he would be immediately recognized as an

escape. The successful establishment and operation of these laws would make professional and habitual crime too hazardous to be attractive. As much could be known of a criminal in any State as was known of him in all the States, and this continent would prove too small for his operations.

As valuable as would be these reforms in criminal law, they are referred to in this report mainly to establish the absolute necessity of abandoning the political standard in selecting the officers of a prison. With the constant changes which are likely to occur under it, it is not probable that the warden can gain sufficient experience to enable him to properly and justly conduct machinery requiring so much discrimination and such a wide knowledge of crime, life, and character. Nor is it possible for him to be surrounded by officers capable of performing the difficult tasks assigned them. The idea of a political appointment is that it is temporary; and such an idea is not likely to stimulate to great effort, nor is it agreeable to conditions requiring the culture and experience belonging to a great profession.

The indefinite sentence involves the accomplishment of a purpose, not the mere passage of a term of years. The criminal is to be required to accomplish that purpose. His liberty depends upon his success. He is certainly entitled to the best opportunities that can be afforded. Hope and all the finer sensibilities and feelings of a good man must be cultivated in him until he stands upon a sure foundation that will keep him safe from the temptations that must surely come. What grander work than this? Of all the professions, it would require the broadest philanthropy and the soundest reason.

The warden must be possessed of an energy that will know the details, and adjust upon the highest standards all of the infinite variety of wants and violations, conflicts and diversified interests, which constantly occur. He must present in his own life a constant example of lofty purpose, clean habits, and a self-command that will communicate itself to every officer and every man. No pretence will do. His interest in the welfare and success of every man committed to his care must be real. It must show itself in every act, in punishments as well as in rewards. Every man is to be regarded as a problem, the solution of which tests the ability of the operator. The greater the evil found in him, the greater the problem. Failure to reach and correct him does not positively class him as incorrigible. Others might have accomplished it. The warden must love the work for itself, and put his whole life into its accomplishment, acknowledg-

ing no failure except in himself, regarding each failure as his failure and as indicating the need of a new process. Above all, he must know that it is possible to reinstate to honorable manhood many who have fallen into a life of sin and crime.

But, when everything has been done that human ingenuity can suggest, there will certainly remain some who withstand all efforts at reformatory discipline. While they may not all be selected from the mass with absolute certainty, yet classes may be distinguished who present difficulties passing the power of man to overcome; and it seems, if they are ever to be reinstated, it must be by the operation of a Divine Hand.

Fools, incapables, men who are structurally deficient, may be incurable. Men cannot create, they can only cultivate the powers that are given; and, if a man is born without mental capacity, or with so little as to be practically inoperative, this deficiency cannot be overcome. It is impossible to teach him, because he has not capacity to understand. Those also who possess the real criminal instinct present great resistance to reformative discipline. The taints which have deformed their lives come to them strengthened by generations of evil, and this has been cultivated by habit and acquirement until it fills and dominates their whole lives.

It is through emotions of hope and love that moral conduct is taught. The emotions must precede the lesson. But these men are without such emotions; and it seems impossible to arouse them, even in the slightest degree. How, then, are they to be taught? They have no regard for home or wife or mother or their own children. They are like men too sick to retain the medicine necessary to their cure.

These two classes, however, constitute a small portion of the population of American prisons. The great mass present some hope of betterment, but in as many different degrees as there are men. Some of them are criminals of occasion, who have sunk under the burdens of life, and who still cling to the tender memories of youth. They are not debased in character, but can, if skilfully taught and judiciously encouraged, easily be made leaders in a great moral reform among their fellows. Some have been swept by sudden passion into crime foreign to their character, which they sincerely regret; and some come out of Christian homes, but with acquired habits that finally destroy the moral restraints of their lives, and so drift into prison. They come in infinite variety, no two alike; but mostly

ignorant, vicious, often vile, it requires unlimited patience and skill to guide and educate, to reward and punish, to purify and elevate a human soul blackened, as it may be, by years of sin. To stimulate the weak and encourage the despondent, who have seen their families scattered and their children ruined by their own errors, and must now face the weary years in prison; to keep touch with the ever shifting impulses and sentiments of a prison yard, and adjust the manifold difficulties, that perfect justice may be maintained,— all this is a work that must engage the broadest philanthropy, the highest talent, and the most rugged natures found among men.

To select men for such work by a partisan standard is to rely upon qualifications that are utterly worthless and disregard those that are most essential. There are positions in government, surely, to which men should be appointed whose political principles and opinions are in harmony with those of the executive head, because this would be necessary in order to carry the work of all the departments forward on parallel lines, and so avoid a conflict in the operation; but no educational or penal institutions can be counted among them.

It is believed by this committee that the evils of political appointments are so great in such institutions as to make real and lasting reforms impossible. Most wardens desire to conduct a successful and progressive administration. If left to themselves, they would do this; but every effort at reform is paralyzed and defeated by a political pressure too strong to be resisted, and which must tend to powerfully modify all efforts at advancement. Under these circumstances all progress must also overcome the savage attacks of political opponents, some of whom, as professional politicians, would cheerfully sacrifice the highest interest of the people for the slightest interest of their party.

It seems that the people desire and are favorable to a continual rotation in office; that it is not believed that merit or capacity or trained judgment are of value in properly conducting the business of a state or nation, as it is known to be in private business.

It is, however, thought that the officers of the army and navy must be thoroughly trained in their profession. Therefore, they can only be removed by court martial, and the government provides a great school to prepare them for their duties. It is recognized that careful preparation is necessary to the professions of law or medicine.

How would it impress the American people if the politicians of New York should unite in recommending one of their number for

appointment to command one of the great war-ships recently launched, and should set up in their petition that he had been of great value to the party in the past, and that his appointment would strengthen the party in the future; that he was now broken down with age and disease, that he was poor, and that the party owed him a debt of gratitude, which they should pay by furnishing him a life position,—no reference to merit, capacity, or experience?

The intention would seem to be that he was to keep her secure in her anchorage, draw his pay, and contribute properly to party success. Because you reject this, because you require long years of training and education for such a position, because you have come to know that it not only requires a technical knowledge of the profession, but that also it requires a certain temperament and force of character to fit the place, the American navy has reflected undying honor upon the American name; but the presentation of such a petition, with exactly such recommendations, is regarded as a correct method to be pursued in selecting officers to govern the prison systems of the country, where, in order to do more than remain at anchorage in the place which has been occupied for a hundred years, the commandant must possess that same temperament and force which will enable him to command men. In addition, he must be able to recognize the temperament of each, and be able to create the emotions that will finally establish a correct character.

How is it the people require that one class of officers be selected from a standard of merit and the other from a standard of politics? Is it more important that we have a good naval service to protect the people from foreign enemies than that we have a good police and prison service to protect the people from enemies at home?

The vast machinery which is employed in the United States for the repression of crime is much more expensive than the American navy. As an item of expense, it stands next to the public school system, and in some of the States it may exceed it. In considering the question financially, the prison must be grouped along with the police departments, the criminal courts and justices, the sheriffs and deputies and detective force, and every department employed, either by the State or general government, to protect the people from the operations of the crime class. Of these, the cost of the prisons is a mere bagatelle. The cost of police in some of the larger cities exceeds a million dollars annually, and in many approaches that sum. The criminal courts throughout the country swell the amount to an enormous aggregate.

One persistent criminal costs thousands of dollars, not for one arrest and trial, but for many. His whole life is spent in short terms in prison, and very short terms in freedom. The city prisons have, in many cases, received the same man for more than fifty times. We do our work over and over again, at vast expense, without an attempt at permanence. It seems that such men should be recognized, and by some method be permanently provided for. Millions of dollars could be saved to the country, and much crime prevented, if methods even tending to permanence in these matters could be employed.

Is it possible to arouse the people to the importance of this subject, and to the possibility of improvement in it?

From the beginning of history, the punitive systems of prison government have been in operation; and their absolute failure to check the constantly increasing volume of crime in the world is well established by abundant experience. To continue them is to perpetuate a failure. A new system must be established, that will have in it at least the promise of better things.

Let us go forward, then, with confidence, remembering that the solution of the question we are considering involves a knowledge of men, and all the passions and all the hopes which lead them to failure or to prosperity.

Let us remember that crime and evil are the great handicap to the ultimate happiness of the race, and that the success or failure of all human effort will be determined by the men who guide it.

Signed by the Committee: Mrs. Thos. A. Hendricks, Indianapolis, Ind.; H. F. Hatch, Jackson, Mich.; R. W. McClaughry, Huntingdon, Pa.; R. Brinkerhoff, Mansfield, Ohio; Z. R. Brockway, Elmira, N. Y.; Charles E. Felton, Chicago, Ill.; R. H. Dawson, Montgomery, Ala.; G. S. Griffith, Baltimore, Md.; Charles Aull, Folsom, Cal.; Charles J. Prescott, Boston, Mass.

THE PRISONER'S SUNDAY.

BY GENERAL R. BRINKERHOFF.

"The Prisoner's Sunday," which for a number of years past has been observed by many churches in this country, and to some extent in other countries, was the outgrowth of a general feeling among those interested in the reform of prisons, and in securing better

methods for dealing with the criminal classes, that there could be no large advance in these directions except through an aroused Christian conscience, which could best be secured through the agency of the churches.

It was everywhere recognized that prison reform was the child of Christianity, and as such it was entitled to the fostering care of the churches; and, to secure this, the Prisoner's Sunday was established.

It was inaugurated under the auspices of the New York Prison Association and of the National Prison Association, and was conceived by William M. F. Round, the secretary at that time of both associations.

In view of a meeting of prison officials and others interested in prison matters, called for conference at the Fifth Avenue Hotel on the 27th of February, 1884, Mr. Round invited a preliminary meeting of clergymen from the city and State of New York. About one hundred, representing nearly every phase of Christian belief, responded to the invitation, and assembled in Grace Hall, East 14th Street, on the afternoon of February 26.

The Rev. Dr. S. Irenæus Prime presided, and in his opening address presented the importance of a more active interest by the churches in prison questions, and deplored the prevalent indifference in regard to them.

A number of addresses were then made, heartily approving the recommendations of Dr. Prime and the work of the prison associations; and, in conclusion, a resolution prepared by Mr. Round, and presented by Rev. J. B. Morse, chaplain of Blackwell's Island Penitentiary, was unanimously adopted, recommending "that all churches should set aside one Sunday in the year for the consideration of the relation of Christian people to the reformation of criminals."

A committee was then appointed to fix upon a Sunday and to send notices to the churches.

The day finally decided upon was the fourth Sunday in October, and this date was accepted by the National Prison Congress; and its observance has been recommended at its annual sessions ever since.

The Prisoner's Sunday has been observed, more or less, in all the Northern States, but more fully in New York, Massachusetts, and Michigan than elsewhere.

In Massachusetts, it has been recommended every year by the annual conference of Congregational churches; and in Michigan

attention has been called to it every year by the Board of State Charities in a publication prepared for the purpose, and entitled "The Prisoner's Sunday."

The results have been that, wherever the day has been observed, much good has been accomplished by arousing public attention to a more intelligent consideration of prison questions; and its advantages in arousing a healthy public sentiment upon these important questions are so apparent that it seems very desirable that the observance of the day should be encouraged.

That the prison question is of sufficient importance to merit such observance is evident enough to all who have familiarized themselves with existing facts.

These facts may be briefly summarized as follows: —

1. Crime is frightfully on the increase. If the United States Census reports are to be trusted,— and all other statistics, as a rule, corroborate their general correctness,— crime, for fifty years, has risen like a tide to which there is no ebb.

In 1850, the criminals were 1 in every 3,442 of population; in 1860, 1 in 1,647; in 1870, 1 in 1,021; in 1880, 1 in 837; and, from present appearances, the census of 1890 will show one in every five or six hundred.

Every one can see that this condition of affairs must be checked, or civilized society must cease to exist.

It is not my province, just now, to consider remedies; but remedies *must* be considered and adopted very soon, or we die. And, surely, the churches ought to be willing to set aside at least one day in the year for such a purpose.

2. Prison reform, as the child of Christianity, has a vested right to the care of the churches. If it fails to receive it, it is an orphan, and there is no adequate help elsewhere.

3. In a democratic form of government, like our own, legislation cannot be attained, or at least cannot be enforced efficiently, without the approval of a majority of voters. In other words, where the people rule, there can be no permanent progress except by instructing the people; and hence the necessity of educational work upon the subject of prison reform.

Under these circumstances, it seems fitting that the National Conference of Charities and Correction, which has always been an active colaborer with the National Prison Association in the matter of prison reform, should co-operate with it in an earnest invitation to

the churches to observe the Prisoner's Sunday, and in all other practical ways to inculcate a better public sentiment upon prison subjects.

Such an invitation, unanimously adopted by this Conference, and officially transmitted to the State associations representing the various religious denominations of the country, would doubtless receive kindly consideration, and in most cases would be commended to the individual churches for acceptance and action.

Doubtless there are some clergymen who, in the multiplicity of other duties, have not had occasion to inform themselves upon the prison question sufficiently to talk to their people as intelligently as they would like; but, fortunately, the literature of the subject is now so accessible that they can easily prepare themselves, and would cheerfully do so if requested.

The official representatives of this Conference or of the National Prison Association would gladly respond to all inquiries for information; and so also would the New York Prison Association, through its efficient secretary, Mr. W. M. F. Round, at its office in New York City, 135 East 15th Street.

Nearly all the great encyclopædias present the subject of prisons and reformatories intelligently, and with sufficient fulness for ordinary uses. The Cyclopædia Britannica, in connection with its American supplement published by Hubbard Brothers of Philadelphia, is especially noteworthy in this respect; and so also are Lalor's and Appleton's Cyclopædias.

In short, what is needed is the education of the American people upon the prison question, so that they shall have an intelligent appreciation of its demands upon them; and we believe that the American churches, by the observance of the Prisoner's Sunday, would be an efficient means to this end, and in doing so would discharge not only a public, but a religious duty.

In addition, the present year is especially suited to this observance for the reason that it is the centenary anniversary of the death of John Howard, the great apostle of prison reform, to which he stands in about the same relation as Saint Paul does to Christianity.

As America was the first country in the world to give organized support to the teachings of John Howard, it is meet that America should be conspicuous among the nations in commemorating his achievements; and in no way can it be done more effectively or usefully than by the proper observance of the Prisoner's Sunday.

XIV.

Reports from States

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

BY L. S. STORRS, OF MICHIGAN, CHAIRMAN.

The Committee on Reports from States sent, Nov. 25, 1889, to each of the forty-seven Corresponding Secretaries of States and Territories circulars in which certain uniform information was sought. The same form was used as that adopted by the Committee on Reports from States of the Sixteenth Annual Conference of this body, as that was considered quite exhaustive as to items, and therefore well adapted to securing most valuable and complete data in all charitable, penal, and reformatory departments of the several States and Territories. Such reports, continued from year to year, would furnish means for comparisons in the future which would be most interesting and profitable.

This effort has not proved successful. Of the forty-seven circulars sent out, only twenty-six have been acknowledged; and of this twenty-six only a dozen were in the form of reports. Such facts, however, should not be discouraging. The difficulties which have arisen this year are not all insurmountable; and such as may be at present, can and doubtless will be in time overcome, if the Conference will persistently request the same information from year to year.

Of the forty-seven Corresponding Secretaries appointed at San Francisco last year, but sixty per cent. responded in any way to the circular. The two subsequent reminders sent them did not meet with so much as an acknowledgment. One declined to act. True, the best men who could be thought of for such a position in the several States were chosen; but the office is far from being simply honorary. Much hard work is required of the person holding it, if we secure the full information which we wish and must have to make our reports valuable. This or some subsequent Conference must devise a plan whereby the State Corresponding Secretary will indi-

cate his consent to act as such before he is appointed. Your Committee on Reports from States would most respectfully present this recommendation for the consideration of the Executive Committee.

Owing to the fact that in many States reports of institutions are made biennially to the legislatures which have biennial sessions, and that such reports are the only source from which the statistics desired by the National Conference can be had, it has occurred to your committee that the Reports from States to the Conference might be made only biennially, at least the statistical portions of them. States having annual official reports could combine those of two years, and States having biennial official reports would be able to make more full and accurate reports. The comparison of reports which are two years apart would show differences more sharply.

The early date of holding the Seventeenth Conference was another reason assigned for the lack of success in securing reports this year. This difficulty was mentioned by more than one State Corresponding Secretary. The time elapsing between the Conference held at San Francisco and this one at Baltimore is but eight months; and, if the sixty day limit for preparing reports is complied with, but six months remain to be covered by the report. This difficulty certainly can be removed in the future. It is possible that more reports could be secured if the information sought were simpler. To cover this point, the circular said, "If you find it impossible to give the information just as requested, please advise the committee of such fact, and make a report as nearly in harmony with the information sought as you can." Two things we hoped to reach by such portion of our circular, — namely, possibly to learn of some form of questions which could be answered more generally, and still secure the information; and, also, to insure reports from such as otherwise might think it useless to attempt to report. The committee gained no information as to a simpler form of circular. It is doubtless true that at present it is impossible to obtain certain items of information sought in the circular sent out. Yet would it be wise to ask for less information than is needed to make the Reports from States complete? Is it not possible that, by holding to the present form, States now unable to give the information will see the need of and put themselves in a position to furnish all the data requested, and so what is lost in the direction of lack of general reports for a time will be gained to the States in obtaining useful and really needed information as to their own poor, defectives, and criminals?

To secure comparison at a glance, the committee attempted to make a tabulated summary; but, in the absence of reports from many important States, any comparison has seemed out of the question.

[In the following abstracts, space has been given chiefly to States that have not before reported. For full reports from the States which usually furnish statistics consult preceding volumes of the Proceedings of the Conference of Charities and Correction.]

ALABAMA. *Estimated Population*, 1,800,000.

Alabama has no State Board of Charities nor Lunacy Commission. It has a Board of Prison Inspectors, whose duty it is to look after the State and county convicts, and see that they are properly cared for, fed and clothed, and not overworked or cruelly treated by the lessees. The care of the insane in the State Hospital at Tuskaloosa is under the control of a board of trustees. The State has exclusive care of the indigent insane and the convicts, and pays all expenses incurred in their treatment and cure. The counties have exclusive jurisdiction of their paupers, and pay all the cost of their support. There is a poorhouse in every county, to which the sane paupers are sent. There are 1,021 in the State Hospital for the Insane at Tuskaloosa, of which number 978 are indigent, and are supported by the State, and 43 are private, and pay their own expenses. The indigent insane are now supported at a per capita cost to the State of two dollars and twenty-five cents ($2.25) per week. This includes their board, clothing, medicines, nursing, salaries of officers and nurses and other employees, together with repairs of buildings, etc. The amount expended by the State during the year 1889 for the indigent insane, including instruction, was $114,426. There are no State paupers in Alabama. Each county takes care of its poor. Neither has the State any homes or asylums for orphans. The churches all have such institutions; and there are, perhaps, half a dozen in the State, all of which are liberally provided for by the several religious denominations. There are probably four or five hundred children provided for in this way in Alabama. Colonel R. H. Dawson is president of the Inspectors of Convicts, with headquarters in Montgomery, Ala. This class of criminals is leased out to the highest bidder. They cost the State nothing. On the contrary, they contribute to its revenues. There is no organized department in the State taking cognizance of the number and classes of im-

migrants coming into Alabama. The drift of legislation and public sentiment in Alabama during the last few years has been decidedly progressive. The lease system of convicts is becoming obnoxious, and will certainly be repealed within a year or two. An effort was made in that direction by members of the last legislature, and would have been successful, if it had been more fully matured.

P. Bryce, M.D.

ARIZONA. *Estimated Population*, 90,000, *including Indians.*

Arizona has no State Board of Charities, but has two directors of the insane asylum and a Prison Commission. Reports are received by the governor from all appointed Territorial officers, but not from county or city officers. The Territory supports the insane asylum and the penitentiary; and the expense of maintaining these is provided for by a general Territorial tax. The counties support the insane and prisoners before and during removal to the Territorial asylum and Territorial prison; but after removal the expense is borne as above stated. In each county the probate judge of the county and any two registered physicians constitute a lunacy commission for commitment. The insane asylum is at Phœnix, and is in charge of a board of directors appointed by the governor. This board appoints the superintendent and other officers, and reports biennially to the governor. The whole number of insane patients in the asylum during the year 1888 was 97; average number, 73. The whole cost to the Territory during the year, including repairs and salaries, was $20,356.89.

Paupers and other dependent persons are county charges, and are provided for by the county boards of supervisors. There are no poorhouses, and special appropriation is made for dependants upon application. These various boards also bury the pauper dead, and have in each county a hospital, located at the county seat, for the indigent sick. It is difficult to give statistics of the dependent, the sick, and the prisoners provided for by the various counties, as there are no general reports made.

The Territorial prison is situated at Yuma, in charge of a board of commissioners appointed by the governor. This board of commissioners appoints the superintendent and all other officers, and reports annually to the governor. The average number of prisoners during 1887 was 121; whole cost to the Territory, $48,037.34, or, per capita per diem, $1.08. During the year 1888, the average number of pris-

oners was 123, at a total cost of $48,733.97, or, per capita per diem, $1.08¾. There is no leasing of the prisoners; neither is there any revenue derived from prison labor, though they work in the quarry, building additional room or making repairs to the prison, when necessary.

There is no record kept of immigrants coming into Arizona. There is, however, a Territorial Commissioner of Immigration, whose duty it is to encourage immigration and assist the immigrants in locating when they arrive. The expense of maintaining the Indians is borne by the United States government. There has been no special legislation on these subjects during the past five years, although during that time the insane asylum has been completed, and patients removed from the insane asylum at Stockton, Cal., where they were formerly kept.

The reports of the various commissioners to the governor have not been printed on account of political disagreements in the legislature.

THOMAS DARLINGTON, M.D.

COLORADO.

The last appropriations made were: to the Penitentiary, $35,000; Boys' Industrial School, $20,000; Mute and Blind Asylum, $22,000; Insane Asylum, $50,000.

DELAWARE. *Estimated Population*, 170,000.

The State has no State Board, each county attending to its own dependent classes, save that of the insane in the new State Hospital for the Insane, with its board of trustees.

Each county maintains its poor by appropriations made by levy court. The insane paupers are supported by State (annual appropriation, $14,000).

The number of insane in the State Hospital,	142
The number of insane supported at private cost,	6
Partly supported at private cost,	2
Number supported entirely at public cost,	134
Number partly supported at public cost,	2

No change in the appropriation for the public poor ($60,000). $40,000 has been the yearly amount in New Castle County for some time; $8,500 for outdoor relief.

Children are maintained in county almshouses and at homes in Wilmington, Del.; 24 in New Castle Almshouse.

The Associated Charities and Woman's Christian Temperance Union watch over special cases, three of which are being cared for at private expense; but they lack authority. The Children's Home will receive children at from 75 cents to $1.50 weekly.

The Ferris Industrial School for Boys is the only institution of that nature in the State. It does excellent work, with 44 inmates. An Immigration Board exists.

The State of Delaware supports in institutions of learning in other States blind, feeble-minded, and deaf and dumb children. Annual cost, about $3,500.

G. K. Easby.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

Great changes have taken place in the Indian Territory since the last report, which was made two years ago at Buffalo. The Indian Territory is no longer what it was then,— a region set apart for the sole use of the Indians. It has been divided, and one-half is now the new Territory of Oklahoma; and its population is composed altogether of the progressive settlers, who have for so many years been awaiting its opening to settlement. It is too early yet to make anything more than a loose estimate of the number of people who have gone into the country; but it is not too early to say that great changes have already taken place, and will continue to result from the opening of Oklahoma. On the morning of April 22, 1889, the broad prairies of Oklahoma were deserted and still. On the evening of that day, one hundred thousand people were encamped on its soil. As the bugle blew the signal at high noon, the gathered thousands, who were waiting on the borders, made a dash for town lots and homesteads. From the south they poured across the Canadian River, regardless of quicksand or swift current. From the north they raced across the line in a vast extended column. So, too, from east and west they answered the signal, and hurried to take possession of the land. It mattered not that some fell by the wayside: the others pushed forward. The broken wagon caused an eddy in the stream, but the mighty tide soon rolled on again. Some were wrecked, some had broken limbs, some were left afoot; but, when the night had fallen, the people had taken full possession of Oklahoma, and the era of civilization and progress had dawned upon the

land. Twenty thousand camp fires gleamed through the night; and each one was a signal that law, order, and progress held possession. The opening of the Territory gave an illustration of the ability of the American people, in the absence of law, to govern themselves. In the new towns, the people were confronted by unexpected problems. The land was occupied for the towns, but there had been no preliminaries settled and no survey or other arrangement for the orderly settlement of the people. At the principal towns, these difficulties were serious, owing to the great number who were claimants for lots. At Guthrie there were over twelve thousand persons gathered on about six hundred acres of land. Each man laid claim to a part of the land, and tried to hold his claim by the strong hand. The result was wild confusion. When night came on, there were thousands of tents, each erected on the lot claimed by its owner; and, owing to the conflicting claims, it was almost impossible to get around, because of the tangle of tent ropes. As many as twenty persons were claimants for a single piece of ground, which had as yet not been surveyed. As a result of this confusion there was imminent danger of personal conflict. The people at once took steps to bring order out of chaos. A Committee on Public Safety was constituted; and to this committee was given the task of organizing the new town, making suitable provision for survey, repressing disorder, harmonizing differences, and, in general, looking after the interests of the people. It was a hard task; but, in one week's time, a survey had been set on foot, and the town had taken shape. Where all had been a tangle of tent ropes and conflicting claims, streets and alleys, lots and blocks, appeared. The gamblers and loose characters, who had apparently taken possession of the town at first, were brought under subjection; and the reign of law began. There were many fierce quarrels, but all were settled without bloodshed; and, in a short time, the town presented the appearance of a Kansas town of many years' growth. This is the story of all the towns, although the development of town organization was more rapid in the larger than in the smaller ones. All the cities have now regular city governments, with the usual corps of officers. Streets have been graded, various other public improvements have been made; while such private enterprises as electric lights, water-works, mills, and factories have been set on foot, and are in active operation. At this writing (March 25), a bill is pending in Congress, which provides for a Territorial government, so that in all probability, at the time for the Conference, there will be a new

Territory, with all the machinery of government and with a legislature in session. For the present, this bill provides that the laws of the State of Nebraska shall govern the infant commonwealth until such time as it shall by its first legislature enact its own code of laws. It is, of course, too early to forecast the provision for charities and correction; but, as the people represent the advanced thought of the West, doubtless there will be proper steps taken to secure what is necessary in this direction. During the winter, and, in fact, since the opening, there has been considerable attention devoted to schools in the towns; but these have been entirely maintained by voluntary contributions. At the beginning, an epidemic of small-pox was feared, as nine cases were found in Guthrie during the first two weeks; but prompt measures stopped the progress of the disease, so that it was not even known in that town what danger the people were in. At that time, a hospital was erected and placed in charge of the city physician; and, under his skilful care, all the cases were carried through safely. Only two persons were heard of as insane, and these were promptly sent back to their friends. Thus the people have shown the power of American citizens to care for themselves in an emergency. The opening of what is known as the "Cherokee Strip" will afford room for many more people; and the rush which was made there a short time ago, when it was supposed to have been opened to settlement, is an indication that in a very short time we shall have in that section a dense population. There are now probably not less than one hundred thousand people in Oklahoma. Add to this number the white people and Indians in the eastern half of Indian Territory, and there are not less than three hundred thousand inhabitants. The civilized tribes are looking for the speedy breaking up of their present form of government. Within the next five years, we may see the last of the present anomalous condition of affairs among them and the organization of a new State, which shall include all of the present Territory under its jurisdiction. There is no doubt the land will be shortly divided in severalty, and with this will naturally come citizenship and its responsibilities. Are the Indians prepared for this? I answer, Yes. The step will prove a benefit in the end, although at first it will work great hardship on the full-bloods. It will be the means of reaching all the people with the influences of civilization; and, though to many this will prove distasteful, in the end it will promote the best interests of the whole people. Owing to the peculiar condition of things, the questions of the committee need no answer in detail.

ROBERT W. HILL.

KANSAS. *Estimated Population*, 1,680,000.

All the public institutions of Kansas which come within the range of Conference inquiry are in a satisfactory condition, and no material changes have occurred since the last report.

At the last session of the legislature the law governing the Soldiers' Orphans' Home was amended, so as to extend the benefits of the Home to all children in a dependent or neglected condition, reserving to the children of soldiers the right of priority in the order of admission. The essential features of the Michigan law were adopted, with the exception that the county superintendents of public instruction were designated as the agents of the Home in their respective counties, with proper compensation for prescribed duties.

The Senate appointed a committee on the revision and amendment of laws relating to public institutions, to report at the next session.

The two asylums for the insane are full; and the establishment of a new institution for the care and treatment of the insane is a pressing necessity, which will probably receive the attention of the next legislature.

No means for securing reliable statistical information concerning pauperism and crime have been provided; but the best available means for information indicate a light population in the jails and poorhouses, and municipal expenditures for temporary outdoor relief have not been burdensome. Professional mendicancy does not seem to thrive; and yet there is great need of charity organization in the larger cities, in order to systematize the work of private charity, as well as to protect and limit municipal expenditures. This subject is receiving some encouraging attention; and, if the Conference would authorize the issue of an official circular to be addressed to editors and ministers, emphasizing the need and value of charity organization, an increased impetus would be given to the work.

C. E. FAULKNER.

KENTUCKY. *Estimated Population*, 1,880,000.

The State has a board of Penitentiary Commissioners, for which the present legislature propose to substitute a State Board of Charities. The State has an Inspector of Public Institutions, also one of mines and one of convicts; also, a State Board of Health, with only advisory powers, except in case of an epidemic.

The three insane asylums, the School for the Deaf and Dumb, the School for the Blind, and the School for Imbeciles, all are supported by the State; and all of these institutions make annual reports to the legislature through the governor.

Parents or guardians of idiots are allowed $75 for the annual maintenance of each idiot, which is paid by the State. There were fourteen hundred and eighteen (1,418) idiots so supported by the State last year, at an expense of $94,429.76. The superintendent of the School for the Feeble-minded, at Frankfort, says of this feature: "Among this large number there are between two and three hundred of school age who could be so improved as to no longer require from the State this amount for their support; but those who have them in charge prefer to receive the money thus provided rather than send them to school. The system is heinous, and amounts to a species of servile bondage, in which these poor, defenceless creatures are bound out by the State, in many cases to irresponsible persons, without any adequate supervision, virtually to be owned, worked, and abused by them."

During the year ending Oct. 1, 1889, there were 168 imbeciles cared for in the institution, at an expense of $38,188.95. In May, 1889, the institution building was burned; and the present legislature has appropriated $20,000, which, with the sum received for insurance, will restore the building in a better shape than before.

The School for the Blind at Louisville has a white department, and a separate department for colored blind children. Last year 87 white and 24 colored blind children received instruction, at a cost for the whites of $21,657.91, for the colored of $5,886.25. For construction there was spent $2,495.75.

The School for the Deaf and Dumb at Danville has also separate departments for the white and the colored children. In the former department there were 134, in the latter 34. The expenses for 1888–89 were $32,486.04 for the white department, and for the colored department $7,629.51.

The Eastern Lunatic Asylum at Lexington cared for 882 patients, at an expense of $105, 899.07, and for improvements $7,466.52.

The Western Lunatic Asylum at Hopkinsville cared for 701 patients, at an expense of $100,907.62, and for buildings and repairs $8,838.54.

The Central Lunatic Asylum at Anchorage cared for 980 patients, at an expense of $102,116.50, and for improvements $7,326.19.

There were also supported by the State 185 pauper lunatics outside the asylums, at a cost of $11,896.66. The State also paid $12,164.28 for the conveyance of lunatics to the asylums.

The city of Louisville maintains an Industrial School of Reform for juvenile delinquents, comprising departments for boys, for girls, and for colored boys. In 1888 there were 161 white boys, 47 girls, and 100 colored boys in the several departments, which were all maintained at an expense of $31,751.10.

B. B. HUNTOON.

MAINE. *Estimated Population*, 660,000.

The Reform School for Boys, situated in Cape Elizabeth, is a fairly good school. Rapid steps are being taken toward making it on the family plan, and toward this one "cottage" is already erected. In the main building as good classification exists as is possible under one roof; but, when some of them are moved out into this new cottage, and in time another cottage is added, the work for unfortunate boys will be better done than now. Good Will Farm at Fairfield is a place where homeless boys are received and provided for as they would be in any well-regulated Christian home. The Girls' Industrial School at Hallowell is an excellent school, consisting of two families, each with matrons and teachers. The girls are carefully trained, although many of them are placed or adopted into families as being preferable to institutional life. The board consists of men and women. Besides these two large institutions, the Reform School for Boys and the Industrial School for Girls, Maine has its orphan asylums and children's homes, supported in part by the State,— the Children's Home at Bangor, Orphan Asylum for Girls in Portland, and Orphan Asylum at Bath. There is situated in Deering a Home for Women and Children (a State institution), where any child under four years of age not eligible to any other place is received. This is under the control of a board of management, consisting of women.

The Associated Charities of Portland, the Fresh Air Society, etc., are doing excellent work.

The last legislature voted to build another insane asylum at Bangor, to better accommodate that section of the State, and also to prevent so many congregating at Augusta. Women have their places among the physicians and attendants.

Maine has one prison and a jail for each county. Efforts are being

made for the establishment of a reformatory prison for women prisoners, as at present they are confined in the same prison with the men. This plainly ought not so to be.

L. M. N. STEVENS.

MARYLAND. *Estimated Population*, 1,070,000.

Maryland has no State Board of Charities, nor prison superintendent or commission. There is a State Lunacy Commission possessing general supervisory powers over all institutions in which insane persons are detained. The commission was organized in 1886. The secretary of the State Board of Health is required to make occasional special inspections of public hospitals, asylums, prisons, and other institutions.

Institutions receiving State aid are required to make biennial reports to the governor and legislature. It is customary for the cities, towns, and counties to send to the governor reports of moneys expended for purposes of charity and correction.

The city of Baltimore and twenty-one of the twenty-three counties of Maryland maintain almshouses. The State provides for the accommodation of 250 pauper lunatics at the Maryland Hospital for the Insane.

The total number of insane in institutions, as given by the report of the Lunacy Commission for 1889, was 1,939, 1,506 white and 433 colored. Of these, 591 were in the city and county almshouses.

In the absence of a State Board of Charities, it is difficult to estimate the number of public poor. Bay View Asylum, the Baltimore city almshouse, had 1,236 inmates on Dec. 31, 1889. During 1889, 2,189 persons were admitted. The average number of inmates was 1,068. The cost of maintenance was $74.10 per capita. In the insane department, the whole number of patients was 420, the average number was 306. The total number of inmates of the twenty-one county almshouses, early in the summer of 1889, was 742. During the winter months, the number of inmates is somewhat larger. The estimated cost of maintaining the county almshouses is $65,000. This does not include the value of the produce raised on the farms.

The two counties that have no almshouses give outdoor relief. Those having almshouses also give outdoor relief to some extent. It is estimated that the nine counties on the Eastern Shore expend $15,000 annually in outdoor relief, while the fourteen counties on

the Western Shore expend $25,000. The Poor Association of Baltimore City expended $21,225 on 15,759 individuals during 1889. There are several other organizations in the city that give outdoor relief to a smaller amount.

There are numerous agencies and institutions in the State for the relief of children, but statistics of their work are not at hand. The average number of children in Bay View Asylum during the past year was 315. The total number of children in the county almshouses is not more than 50. The law provides that children received into the almshouses shall be placed in families or in educational institutions unless they are unable to labor or to render service.

The total number of prisoners, exclusive of the inmates of juvenile reformatories, was 16,059. The average number was 1,535. The Maryland Penitentiary had a total of 907, and an average number of 655 prisoners. The expenditure for the year was $76,875.62. The receipts for hire of convicts and rent of shops were $67,275.87. The State contributed $8,000 to the institution. 765 persons were committed to the House of Correction. The average number of prisoners was 238. The State appropriation is $25,326.

The total commitments to the city jail were 11,740. The daily average of prisoners was 507. The expenditure was $52,445.63. There are twenty-three county jails, with an average number of 125 prisoners. The total number of commitments during 1889 was 2,647.

There are no reformatory prisons in the State. There are six juvenile reformatories: —

House of Refuge for Boys: 216 inmates on Nov. 30, 1889. Average number, 201. Total receipts, $38,390.21, of which $15,000 was appropriated by the State, and $19,839 by the city. Expenditure, $37,710.59. Average age of inmates, 14½ years.

House of Reformation for Colored Boys: 270 inmates, Nov. 30, 1889. Receipts for 1889, $24,197, of which $10,000 was received from the State, and $10,312 received from the city. Expenditure, $21,402.

St. Mary's Industrial School: 419 boys, Nov. 30, 1889. Total number for the year, 608. Receipts, $47,459, of which $15,000 was received from the State, and $19,703 from the city. $3,273.21 was paid during the year toward extinguishing a debt of $27,556.92.

Female House of Refuge: 78 girls, Jan, 1, 1890. Total number during the year, 98. Average age, 15 years. Receipts, $22,588.89, of which $3,000 was received from the State, and $3,000 from the city. Expenditure, $17,952.69.

Industrial Home for Colored Girls: 84 girls, Dec. 31, 1889. Receipts, $7,962, of which $2,000 was received from the State, and $4,000 from the city.

House of the Good Shepherd: 223 girls, January, 1889. Of these, 71 were committed, and 152 not committed. Cost per capita, $70 to $75. $2,000 is appropriated annually by the State.

During 1889 there landed at the port of Baltimore 28,461 aliens. 1,045, or about 3 6-10 per cent., remained in the State. It is estimated that 75 per cent. of this number came at the solicitation of friends or relatives in America, who prepaid their passage money. About 80 per cent. of those who remained in Maryland came from the German Empire. There is a State Board of Immigration.

The general drift of legislation is in the right direction, and the laws passed are, as a rule, effective. A synopsis of the important acts of recent years follows: —

Act of '86, Lunacy Commission. Has supervision over all institutions, public, corporate, or private. A board of five members, the Attorney-General and four members appointed by the governor. Three members must be from Baltimore City, two must be physicians in actual practice for five years, and one must have had at least two years' experience in the treatment of the insane. No compensation. The secretary to be appointed by the Commission. He must be a physician. Every institution must be visited at least once in six months, and all institutions must report to the Commission. The Commission may direct the State Attorney to apply for *habeas corpus* for any person confined not thought insane. Has power to inspect and to summon witnesses. Reports annually to the governor.

All persons desiring to keep insane for hire must obtain a license from the Commission.

No person can be committed to any asylum except upon written statement of lunacy signed by two physicians within one week of separate examinations.

Patients to be furnished with means of communication with the Commission, or with any one person named, once per month under seal. No institution can hold more than five patients without a regular resident physician.

State Board of Health. Appointed by governor and Senate. Act of '86, chap. 22, constitutes county commissioners local boards under the State Board.

Act of '86, chap. 262. No child between three and sixteen years

to be retained or received in any almshouse or poorhouse for more than ninety days, unless unable to labor or render service. To be placed in respectable families in the State or in educational institutions. To be visited once in every six months.

Act of '86, chap. 57. Any minor having vicious parents or having none, or suffering from bad treatment, is to be committed to some institution.

Act of '86, chap. 341. Fine or imprisonment for selling liquor to minors and for selling cigars, cigarettes, or tobacco to any one under fourteen years of age.

State appropriation, $238,995; Baltimore City appropriation, $85,000, of which $81,000 was expended.

H. B. Adams.

MASSACHUSETTS. *Estimated Population*, 2,210,000.

Report of Board of Lunacy and Charity.— The work of the Board of Lunacy and Charity, with its varied and numerous functions, was given with so much detail in the last report of this Conference (1889) that it is unnecessary to do more than to refer at this time to new legislation, and the new duties involved in consequence.

The Act of 1889, providing for the establishment of an asylum for inebriates, has been followed by the appointment of a commission for the selection of a site and erection of suitable buildings, and of a Board of Trustees for its management. The hospitals for the insane will be relieved of a class for which they were not intended, and which has been a source of much embarrassment to the management. The legislature of 1890 passed an act for the establishment of a new asylum for the chronic insane, which shall accommodate one thousand inmates. This, when done, will solve for the present the problem of how to provide for the increasing number of the insane. By taking this number from the hospitals, the crowding so much complained of in the last few years will be avoided, and opportunity afforded for treatment of those who may be curable. A commission has been appointed to select a situation, and present plans, for the governor's approval, of suitable buildings.

The "Baldwinsville Cottages," an institution for the care and treatment of children suffering from epilepsy, spinal, and other kindred diseases, having received large sums of money for the erection of buildings and for its support, has been placed under partial State

management, half of the Board of Trustees being appointed by the Governor of the State.

The boarding out of the harmless insane is continued, with largely increased numbers. The only difference in this system is in the practice of boarding some at a decreased cost on account of the work they are able to do, while some are kept without any other compensation than their labor affords. The results of the boarding of this class (which has hitherto been almost experimental) are thought to warrant a continuance of the system whenever and wherever it can be legally done.

Much attention has been and will be given to the condition of the insane in almshouses, which in many of the cities and towns is far from satisfactory. The short-sighted system of economy, prompting overseers of the poor to remove their insane from the hospitals to almshouses, cannot be too severely censured. In the cases of those requiring treatment, it is illegal, as is also the custom of dispensing with a special medical director. The State Farm at Bridgewater, in addition to its building for chronic insane men, will have ready for occupancy this summer a wing for the violent and criminal insane. At the State Almshouse at Tewksbury, a new hospital for men, corresponding to the fine one for women, opened two years since, has been completed, and is now occupied by a class long needing better quarters.

At the State schools, no material or important changes have taken place, except in the increased numbers at the Lyman School for boys at Westboro, necessitating new buildings. At the Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster there have been more commitments than for several years. No new buildings have been erected, but arrangements for the enlargement of one house have been made, and the girls are placed out in families as often as it can be done with safety. The policy of the Board remains unchanged in most particulars, and is briefly as follows: —

In the matter of the insane, to remove, if possible, the chronic and incurable from acute and perhaps curable cases, that all efforts may be directed to the latter class; to provide for the former in comfort, and as far as possible to promote their happiness by boarding them out in families, when it can be suitably and legally done, and for those who cannot be thus boarded to provide asylums where they shall have proper medical care. It disapproves of almshouse care, and advises cities and towns not to remove their insane from the

hospitals unless suitable and efficient medical supervision can be afforded them. As to the State schools, it recognizes the value only of such teaching, mental or manual, as shall develop the boy or girl and tend toward an honest and respectable life outside the institution. It disapproves of a longer continuance in institutions than is absolutely necessary for the above-mentioned development; but it also recognizes the fact that no iron rule can be laid down as to time, though the standard of preparation for that outside experience must not be higher than to harmonize with the order of life of the well-to-do and honest, in the households outside to which they will probably go.

It disapproves of extravagant or luxurious appointments in institutions, as foreign to the spirit of true charity. The inevitable weakening of character by life in institutions, the arrest of development, must be prevented, if possible, by some hardships and privations, such as these boys and girls would be sure to encounter in their own homes or those to which they would be sent.

The protection of the child at the time of trial, by the presence of an officer of the Board in the court, is deemed of the utmost importance, and is always required.

The system of auxiliary visiting is cherished as the best possible for the young girls placed out, and has fully justified all expectations.

ANNE B. RICHARDSON.

MICHIGAN. *Estimated Population*, 2,175,000.

*The Insane.** — Whole number for the year, 3,432. In asylums, 3,069; in poorhouses, 363. Of this number in asylums, 299 are private patients. The average number for the year is 2,898.

The cost of the insane at the Michigan Asylum was: —		
Current expenses,	$177,614.54	
Officers' salaries,	9,267.20	$186,881.74
At the Eastern Michigan Asylum:		
Current expenses,	$164,239.46	
Officers' salaries,	9,841.67	174,081.13
At the Northern Michigan Asylum:		
Current expenses,	$109,855.22	
Officers' salaries,	7,340.25	117,195.47
Amount carried forward,		$478,158.34

*The increase in insane over last year is not so great as it appears from the figures, as 91 are reported in poorhouses in counties which failed to report last year; and there is little change from year to year in numbers in poorhouses, only as death makes the number less.

Amount brought forward, ...		$478,158.34
At the Asylum for Insane Criminals:		
Current expenses, ...	$23,723.14	
Officers' salaries, ...	3,177.34	26,900.48
Total, ...		$505,058.82
The Public Poor.— Their number was: —		
In poorhouses, ...	4,847	
Average number, ...	2,192	
Under sixteen years of age, ...	393	
Outside poorhouses, ...	39,128	
Permanent, ...	2,754	
Temporary, ...	36,374	
The expense at poorhouses (exclusive of cost of farms and buildings) was		$238,271.12
Outside of poorhouses, temporary relief, . . .		386,676.43
Permanent relief, . . .		33,817.89
Total, ...		$658,765.44
In asylums (given above), average, 2,535, . . .	2,593	
School for the Blind (average, 86), ...	103	
School for the Deaf (average, 299), ...	302	
State Public School (average, 183), ...	491	
The cost of the public poor was		$1,273,953.22
Namely,— Asylums (given above), ...		505,058.82
School for the Blind, ...		22,462.93
School for the Deaf, ...		53,362.03
State Public School, ...		34,304.00
Expense for paupers, ...		658,765.44
Children.		
In poorhouses (given above), mostly idiots and feeble-minded, ...	393	
In homes, from State Public School, ...	956	
Out on trial, " " . . .	117	
In the State Public School, ...	174	
Mrs. Dearing's, Kalamazoo, ...	22	
Detroit Institution, ...	376	
Saginaw Institution, ...	123	

Children from the State Public School are placed in homes which have been approved by the county agent of each county, or State agent of the institution, and supervised by such county agent. The law provides that the home of any child who is indentured in Michigan shall be so approved.

Prisoners.		
At State House of Correction and Reformatory		
(June 30, 1889),	336	
Total during year,	864	
Daily average,	369	
Current expenses, less labor of prisoners,		$36,531.27
At State Prison:		
June 30, 1888,	737	
Total during year,	976	
Daily average,	749	
Current expenses, less labor of prisoners,		$34,641.59
At Detroit House of Correction:		
June 30, 1889,	406	
Total during year,	2,391	
Daily average,	443	
(Statement of cost not received.)		
Reformatories.— Reform School for Boys, Lansing:		
June 30, 1889,	464	
Total during year,	712	
Daily average,	443	
Current expenses, less labor of inmates,		$53,008.04
Industrial Home for Girls, Adrian:		
June 30, 1889,	229	
Total during year,	291	
Daily average,	221	
Current expenses,		$37,303.76
Jails.		
Total number in jail during year,	11,321	
Average number,	342	
Number sent to State Prison,	223	
" " State House of Correction,	364	
" " Detroit House of Correction,	718	
" " Reform School,	174	
" " Industrial Home,	35	
Expense.		
For maintaining jails,		$110,033.95
Arresting and imprisoning in jails,		27,005.52
Taking convicts to prisons, etc.,		12,892.20
Other items,		1,573.17

No legislation to report since last Conference, as legislative sessions are biennial.

MINNESOTA.

The legislative appropriations for the fiscal year ending July 31, 1890, were as follows: —

Institutions.	Current Expenses.	Buildings, etc.	Totals.
Hospitals for Insane,	$355,500	$82,000	$437,500
Soldiers' Home,	25,000	25,000	50,000
School for Deaf,	42,000		42,000
School for Blind,	15,400	24,000	39,400
Feeble-minded,	56,000		56,000
Dependent Children,	21,900	14,200	36,100
Reform School,	45,000		45,000
State Reformatory,	28,000		28,000
State Prison,	61,400	30,000	91,400
Totals,	$650,200	$175,200	$825,400

MISSOURI. *Estimated Population*, 2,790,000.

For the Chillicothe Industrial School for Girls the legislature appropriated $5,000 for the purchase of grounds, $30,000 for the erection of suitable buildings, $5,000 for furnishing such buildings and incidental expenses, and $10,000 for annual current expenses. The citizens of the town and county contributed $5,000 to secure the location at that place. The Board of Control adopted the cottage or family plan. The present buildings will accommodate 50 inmates.

For the Reform School for Boys at Boonville the legislature appropriated for the purchase of grounds $5,000, for furnishing building $3,000, for maintenance and incidental expenses $5,000, for the erection of buildings $40,000. The lands of the institution comprise 165 acres. The building is 178 x 58 feet, four stories high, including basement and detached boiler-house, kitchen, dining-room, and laundry. These buildings will accommodate from 180 to 200 boys.

Of the lunatic asylums, the governor in his last message said: "The State is now in better condition to care for the unfortunate insane than at any former time. I have visited all three of the asylums within the past year, and find them all well managed by competent superintendents. The (new) asylums at St. Joseph and Nevada are model buildings. . . . There is a growing opinion that it would be to the best interest of the State to place these institutions under the control of one State Board instead of the several local boards." The whole number of insane in the State in the public institutions of the State is 3,501.

Since the last report to this Conference, the building of the Institution for the Deaf Mutes at Fulton, Mo., has been destroyed by fire. It has since been rebuilt. The buildings are now better than ever, and better adapted for their purposes.

NEBRASKA. *Estimated Population*, 1,100,000.

The institutions of the State are in good condition, and are serving the purpose for which they are sustained. New charities are being organized, but not so rapidly as the demand for them requires. New hospitals and orphanages are projected in the city of Omaha, and the need for them is pressing.

The Institute for the Blind has had 45 pupils during the last year; admitted during the year, 18; discharged, 6; average attendance, 42; the per capita cost of maintenance, $255; the value of buildings and grounds, $75,000. Piano-tuning has been introduced in the last year as one of the trades.

The Industrial School at Kearney has had in attendance 249; received during the year, 111; discharged, 107; average attendance, 247; the per capita cost, $169.35; value of buildings and grounds, $136,000. There is a new industrial building in course of construction, which will be completed soon. This institution is doing a great work in the reformation of the class for which it is sustained. Professor J. T. Mallalieu, superintendent.

The Institute for the Deaf and Dumb at Omaha has had in attendance during the year 133; admitted, 17; discharged, 28; average attendance, 103; the per capita cost, $206.40; value of buildings and grounds, $115,000. Wood-carving has been added to the trades taught. The oral method of instructing the partially deaf has been successfully carried on. J. A. Gillespie, principal.

The Institution for the Feeble-minded Youth at Beatrice has had an attendance of 123; admitted, 29; discharged, 14, including three deaths; average number, 104; the per capita expense, $197; value of buildings and grounds, $86,000. Brush-making has been introduced as one of the trades. Dr. W. J. Armstrong, superintendent.

The Hospital for the Insane at Lincoln has had in attendance 564; has received 216; discharged 173; average for the year, 380; average cost, $218.79; value of buildings and grounds, $275,000. Dr. W. M. Knapp, superintendent.

The Hospital for the Insane at Norfolk has had about 180 inmates during the year. A change in the management has occurred. Dr. E. A. Kelley, who has had charge since the organization of the institution, resigned, and was succeeded by Dr. G. W. Wilkinson.

The Asylum for the Incurable Insane at Hastings was opened for the reception of patients in December, 1889; and 137 of those considered incurable were removed from the Lincoln Hospital. Since then seven have died. The value of buildings and grounds, $103,000. This institution is well equipped for its work. Dr. M. W. Stone, superintendent.

The Home for the Friendless at Lincoln has had in attendance: adults, 86; children, 350; total, 436. Received during the year 62 adults, 269 children; total, 331. Discharged: adults, 75; children, 272; total, 347. Average number adults, 20; children, 80; total, 100. Value of buildings and grounds, $25,000. This institution is under a dual management, partly State and partly by an association of ladies. The State makes direct appropriations for buildings and specific objects. Mrs. A. B. Slaughter, superintendent.

The number of prisoners in the Penitentiary during the year has been 379; number of commitments, 202; number discharged, 164; average number imprisoned, 358. The average cost to the State is 40 cents per day, this prison being conducted on the contract system. The value of the buildings and grounds is $850,000. There has been a change in the wardenship. Dan Hopkins has been appointed, *vice* R. W. Hyers resigned.

The Home for Erring Women at Milford was opened May 1, 1889. Thirty-seven of these unfortunates have found a refuge during the year. There have been thirty-two births. This institution is supported by the State. Its internal management is in the hands of the Woman's Charity Association. A similar institution in Omaha, "The Open Door," is under the care of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. This is supported entirely by donations. Seventy-two inmates have been received during the year.

The Soldiers' and Sailors' Home at Grand Island has been opened for the reception of old soldiers during the last year. 99 have been in attendance, 30 discharged. The average attendance has been 37 for eleven months. The per capita cost, $297.06; value of buildings and grounds, about $60,000. Colonel W. C. Henry, commandant.

Omaha Charities.— The Woman's Christian Association of Omaha is doing a good work. The Old Ladies' Home is an institution in

which old ladies are cared for who have no means of support, and generally no friends to care for them. It also is a home for destitute women and children. During the last year, 240 inmates were cared for. Of this number, 107 were children, most of whom were under ten years of age. This is strictly a charitable institution, although some who are able partially pay their way. They are there for the sake of a home.

The Young Woman's Home under the care of this association is, as its name indicates, a *home*. It is not, strictly speaking, a charity, but a Christian home, where young women who are employed during the day can find a home with Christian surroundings, where they will be safe from the snares and intrigues of the designing. About one hundred and thirty have found a home during the last year.

The Woman's Exchange is an institution under the care of the association, which has undertaken to found and maintain a place for the reception and sale of articles, the products and manufacture of industrious and meritorious women. It is in successful operation, and has done much good. It is self-supporting.

J. A. GILLESPIE.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. *Estimated Population*, 381,000.

The legislature of 1889 passed an act making the State Board of Health a Board of Commissioners of Lunacy. Under the provisions of this act all the insane are made wards of the State. The Board has power to authorize the removal of indigent insane persons to the New Hampshire Asylum for the Insane, for remedial treatment. The Board is also required to inspect all institutions where insane persons are confined, at least once in four months.

The provisions of the law were put into operation about the 1st of September, 1889; and since that time the Board have made a personal examination of every insane person confined at our county almshouses and asylums, as well as many individual cases. Out of a total of 389 insane persons confined at the county institutions, the Board have transferred to date, April 1, 1890, 66 patients to the State asylum for remedial treatment.

The law above referred to marks an era of progress in this State in the care and treatment of the dependent insane. Heretofore this class of unfortunates has been confined at the county asylums and almshouses, these institutions being places of detention only. No

treatment of a remedial character is provided; and the inmates are supported at the least possible expense, in some instances being locked into the building or in their rooms, even during the day, on account of a lack of attendants to care for them properly. At times they are thus left without a single attendant. This state of affairs still exists at some of these institutions, but it has been the policy of the Board to remove all the insane that offered any hope of benefit from remedial treatment. The progress that is being made in this State, and which is more marked in some of our county institutions than in others, must soon, through public sentiment, if not by law, bring about a permanent reform in all our county asylums.

All patients removed to the State asylum, by order of the Board, are maintained at the expense of the State while receiving treatment, thus relieving the counties of a considerable burden. Thus far the operation of the law seems to be highly satisfactory; and we hope it will be followed by further legislation, which shall ultimately place all the insane under the direct supervision, maintenance, and care of the State.

The charge for maintaining the dependent insane at the State asylum is $4 per week, exclusive of clothing and a few minor incidentals. The cost of maintaining the insane at the county institutions, together with paupers not insane, is shown in the following table: —

Counties.	No. of Inmates at County Farm for the year 1889.	Cost per Week.	No. of Insane.
Rockingham,	183	$1.97	74
Strafford,	170	1.69	48
Belknap,	62	1.38	11
Carroll,	64	1.44	27
Merrimack,	104	2.46	51
Hillsborough,	257	1.43	85
Cheshire,	64	1.43	19
Sullivan,	65	1.45	24
Grafton,	111	1.62	34
Coos,	85	1.38	16
	1,165		

There is a large farm connected with each county institution; and to the incidental expenditures are added the interest upon the valuation of the property, salary of superintendent, cost of help, etc., while the proceeds from the sale of farm products is credited to the institu-

tion. It is upon this basis that the cost of maintaining the inmates is estimated.

The reports of the county commissioners of the several counties show that large sums are expended in supporting or assisting indigent persons outside of the county almshouses, but the reports do not give the number of persons thus aided.

We have several orphans' homes which are supported almost entirely by private funds and subscriptions, and there are also at the county almshouses a greater or less number of children. We have no statistics readily obtainable that give the number of dependent children in the State or in our almshouses, or the amount of money expended in their care. The rearing of children in our almshouses is an evil to which the State should give its attention. Children thus situated have constantly before them the example of the very worst elements of society, although the superintendent and matron in most cases do everything in their power for these little ones; but it is nevertheless true that they are being bred in schools of infamy and crime.

During the year 1889 there were 157 prisoners at the State prison. We have no complete statistics at hand showing the number confined at the jails and houses of correction. Nearly all our counties have made their almshouses houses of correction, to which people convicted of minor offences, chiefly drunkenness, are sent. The bringing together in one institution of a large number of persons consisting of children, unfortunate persons of good character and morals, and criminals and drunkards from the very lowest dregs of humanity, is a practice that invites the severest criticism, and will doubtless lead, eventually, to the classification and segregation of these incompatible classes.

Legislation in this State during the past ten years has been in the direction of improvement in the care of our dependent classes, although the progress has been slow. The State appropriations have been ample for the existing institutions; but it is probable that the legislature will be called upon to make an appropriation to build an addition to the New Hampshire Asylum for the Insane, as this institution is now crowded to its utmost capacity. There is need of a building for convalescing men, and also a separate building for the so-called incurable insane.

IRVING A. WATSON, M.D.

NORTH CAROLINA. *Estimated Population*, 1,675,000.

By the constitution of 1868, and statutes enacted immediately thereafter, large powers of supervision of all the penal and charitable institutions are given to a Board of Public Charities, elected by the legislature, one member annually for a term of five years, with provision for executive appointment to vacancies. No elections were made by the legislature subsequent to 1873, and the Board ceased to meet after the failure of a qualified quorum. In August, 1889, the present governor appointed a Board under the provision of law empowering him to fill vacancies. This was during a recess of the General Assembly, which meets next in January, 1891. Dr. E. Burke Hayward was made president of said Board, which organized on the legal date in October, 1889. Reports upon a uniform basis were secured from the several State institutions, and inspections were made of the same, and of a limited number of county jails and poorhouses, upon questions forwarded by the secretary, C. B. Denson, of Raleigh.

But a complete system of visitation and general statistics from all counties cannot be obtained until the General Assembly shall see fit to provide an appropriation for printing and other expenses. All the State officials have shown a readiness to co-operate with the Board and further its labors, and the State press begins to recognize the desirability of general and systematic supervision of charitable and penal institutions. There are three insane asylums (one being for colored patients only), two asylums for the deaf and dumb and the blind (one for colored patients exclusively), one penitentiary with a number of convict camps (under the State control, however), and one orphan asylum, which is supported in part by the State. Each county maintains its jail and poorhouse; and several have workhouses, to be hereafter referred to.

Insane Asylum, built 1849–56. In design, with main building, 116 x 81 feet, and wings at right angles of 325 x 41 feet, and 50 feet in height. Accommodates at present 142 males and 156 females, having 300 for utmost capacity of present buildings. Heated by steam (indirect) radiation, lighted by gas. Abundant water supply, with cistern holding 237,000 gallons. Apparatus for protection from fire,— pump, fire plugs on each floor, hose supply, etc. Owns 175 acres land, 8 in garden, 35 in farm. Ventilation of building by ordinary and by forced draught, by fan and tower, and by dry-air

pipe system. The present superintendent recommends increase of accommodation on the cottage plan, or otherwise, for 300 additional patients. List of casualties, with details of same, filed with the Board of Public Charities.

The present superintendent, Dr. W. P. Wood, succeeded Dr. Eugene Grissom, who resigned Aug. 22, 1889, after service of great success for twenty-one years. The following figures for the term, December, 1888, to August, 1889, being the portion of the official year under Dr. Grissom's charge, are believed to present a record not surpassed by any institution in the United States which receives and treats with chronic and acute cases: Number under treatment December, 1888, 292; number admitted to date, Aug. 22, 1889, 67; whole number treated from December, 1888, to date, 359; number discharged as cured, 46; improved, 6; number unimproved, 1; number died, 19; total discharged, 72. Percentage of cured upon whole number admitted since December, 1888, 68.65 per cent.; percentage of deaths upon whole number treated in the same time, 5.29.

Western Insane Asylum, Dr. P. L. Murphy, superintendent: Situated in Morganton. Building begun in 1875, completed in 1886. Has 211 male patients and 241 female, but changes in construction to use fourth floor of fire-proof section will increase capacity to 504. Rooms 8 x 12, with 12 feet pitch and one window. Dormitories furnish 800 cubic feet of air to each patient. 36 patients at home on probation. Heated by steam radiation (indirect), lighted by gasoline gas. Has one attendant to 12 patients. 400 acres land, 150 available for cultivation now. Forced ventilation by two fans, with capacity of 160,000 cubic feet of air per minute from tower, 100 feet high, to building. Prime cost of board weekly per patient, about 85 cents. Improvements which are considered desirable are an increase of water supply, better protection from fire, and a large library for patients. The assigned causes of insanity in the principal number of patients are heredity, ill health, and domestic troubles. The institution is situated in a district of great salubrity, and where labor and supplies are cheap.

Eastern Insane Asylum, Dr. J. F. Miller, superintendent: Situated at Goldsboro. Opened Aug. 1, 1880, for colored patients only, and the first in the world especially erected for that class of population. Centre building used for administration, and wings for patients. Number now under treatment, 97 males, 137 females. Capacity, 241. Single rooms 7 x 10, with 13 feet pitch and one window, 2 feet

10 x 7. Water supply from cistern and wells for culinary purposes, for other uses pumped from Little River into tanks. Heated by direct radiation, lighted with gasoline gas, but electric lights are contemplated. Will shortly be better ventilated and heated by pure air fanned over heated pipes. 80 acres for farm and gardens. Good system of sewerage. Total per capita cost for 1889, $122 each, or $2.33 per week.

The increase of insanity among the negro population is such that, to meet temporary needs, until additional buildings can be had by the State, the superintendent suggests through the Board of Public Charities that provision be made at every county poorhouse of rooms properly heated, with special attendants for the same. The death-rate is found to be higher than the usual percentage in asylums for the whites, but this corresponds with the well-known higher death-rate of the negro.

Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind: Department for Whites, W. J. Young, principal. Established by law, in rented house, 1845. Building erected, and occupied January, 1849, with sundry additions since of chapel, wings for dormitories, etc. Main building of four stories, with two wings of three stories. Capacity for 150, 75 of each sex. Average attendance, 150. Cost per capita, $185 to $190 per annum. Number of congenital mutes, 56. The usual branches of education are taught; and the boys learn shoemaking, and the girls sewing and fancy work. All graduates of the past year were competent to support themselves. Lighted by gas, warmed by steam. Library of 16,000 volumes for deaf, and 500 for blind. The blind are taught music, and broom and mattress making and cane-seating chairs for the boys, and sewing, fancy work, and knitting for the girls. There are forty-five congenitally blind. It is proposed to add the printing trade to the course, and to introduce practical farming and gardening.

Institution for the Deaf and Dumb and Blind: Colored Department, W. J. Young, principal, W. F. Debnam, supervisor. Situated in Raleigh. Built in 1875. Brick building of three stories, and accommodations for 40 pupils. There are now 33 deaf-mutes, of whom 30 are congenital mutes, and 22 blind, 13 congenital. Usual English course taught, and trades of shoemaking, broom and mattress making, and cane-seating. Supervisor suggests the addition of basket and shuck-mat making. Lighted by gas, heated by steam, and dietary scale the same as that for the whites.

In addition to the provision for the insane, deaf and dumb, and blind, the State sustains a part of the annual expenditure of the

Oxford Orphan Asylum, superintendent, Dr. B. F. Dixon: Founded in 1872, by the Grand Lodge of Masons of North Carolina, and managed for many years by J. H. Mills, now general manager of the Thomasville Orphanage. In 1873, the State made an annual appropriation of $5,000, increased in 1885 to $10,000, the present amount. The building for girls is of four stories, with 90 rooms. Boys' building of four stories. Teachers' dormitories, school-rooms, etc. An annex added this year contains teachers' and boys' dining-rooms, chapel, reception-room, and kitchen, superintendent's cottage, hospital, farmer's cottage, and industrial building (brick), containing shoe-shop, broom factory, and sewing-room. To these may be added a factory for making trousers, and a cotton factory, to be completed July 1, 1890. The cost of the cotton factory will be about $35,000. Value of other buildings, $100,000. Supported one-half by the State, one-fourth by Masonic and other voluntary contributions, and the remaining fourth by self-support in various ways. Accommodations for 260; average during the year, 250; number at present, 129 boys, 131 girls. Discharged during 1889: by adoption, 15; returned to friends, 5; sent to insane asylum, 1; and 23 sent to take charge of telegraph offices, into printing-offices, and to families. All children clad as well as otherwise cared for. Heated by open fireplaces and stoves, good lights, ventilation, and water. Printing, telegraphy, gardening, truck-farming, general farming, broom-making, and shoemaking are taught. No death whatever for two years past. Condition and care of children leaving the asylum are reported by the committees of lodges of Masons in the counties, until they reach majority. Per capita cost, $68 per annum, for board, clothing, and tuition.

The auditor's report for the fiscal year ending Nov. 30, 1889, gives the following disbursements: —

Insane Asylum,	$49,000
Western Insane Asylum,	85,500
Eastern Insane Asylum,	30,000
Institutions for Deaf, Dumb, and Blind,	38,000
Oxford Orphan Asylum,	10,000
Penitentiary (appropriation),	70,250
Penitentiary (earnings),	123,369
Board of Health,	2,000
For disabled Confederate veterans,	4,440
Pensions to disabled veterans of Confederate troops and widows,	30,336
	$442,895

Being a total for charities and correction of $442,895 out of total disbursements of public funds of $1,012,938. (This does not include taxation for educational fund.) An addition of $50,000 will be made to this during the present year, on account of legislation providing additional pensions for indigent and disabled veterans of the war. It is anticipated, however, that there will be a decrease in the expenditures of the Penitentiary.

The cost of confinement in prison, and the care of the general poor, are left to the several counties. It cannot be denied that there is great room for improvement in our jails and poorhouses in many sections, but an advance in public sentiment, a growing interest, and desire for better results are being manifested, while in many counties intelligent and reasonable treatment has been given to this subject. Inspections have been made in a number of the counties by the newly reorganized Board of Public Charities. Among the reports furnished the secretary, extracts are taken from those of the counties of Craven, Wake, and Buncombe, representing the eastern, middle, and western sections of the State, of the present condition of their jails and poorhouses up to December, 1889.

The jail of Craven County (Newbern) is of brick, with iron facings, 70 x 34, and was built in 1881. One large room, 36 x 31, with four iron cells in centre; also, four other rooms, 15 x 12, well heated and lighted. Prisoners well cared for. Usual number, 15 to 20.

The poorhouse of the same county has seven buildings, 12 x 12 to 32 x 32, with one to seven rooms each, built on three sides of a quadrangle, well enclosed and shaded by trees. 10 acres of land are cultivated. Heated by wood fires. Accommodations for 75; number at present, 21,—all voluntary inmates, none able to work, and 12 are helpless. Cost per week, $1.25 each.

The jail of Wake County (Raleigh) is of brick on stone foundation, with slate roof, and steel cells within,— fire-proof. Also has hose connecting water tank with steam fire company's headquarters adjoining. Building is 28 x 46 feet, two stories, with ten cells in two tiers. No communication between sexes. Water supply in unrestricted quantity, from city water-works. Ample bedding. Two meals daily, without limit as to ration. No punishments inflicted. Cleansed throughout, and all prisoners required to bathe, once a week. Number in confinement: white, 5; colored, 20.

Wake Poorhouse and Workhouse, five miles north-west of Raleigh, has eight buildings for dependants, 16 x 16, with 8 feet pitch, of wood,

with one door and one large window to each room. No protection against fire. Good water from wells. Heated by open fireplaces. Accommodates 64, which number is present, 16 of the number only being able to do light work. Premises fairly well arranged. Land, 500 acres, ordinary to poor; 175 acres in crops, grasses and clover, corn, potatoes, and garden vegetables. Good orchard; shade trees. No punishment.

The following ration is believed to be fairly representative of customary food supplied to the poor of the counties: One-third of a pound of bacon or one pound fresh beef daily, and vegetables and bread without allowance; also, one pound sugar and one pint molasses each, weekly. Coffee daily; and for the sick rice, milk, butter, and chickens are provided, as light diet. Pork is raised. Cost weekly per capita for food, $1.00.

On another portion of the same land is Wake County Workhouse. To this prisoners are sent who are sentenced to terms at labor under the minimum of ten years. The present number is 60; and they are employed in improving the public roads of the county, encamping during the week, and returning for Sunday rest and service at the workhouse. Prisoners are well fed and clothed, and the plan works well. By a system of special taxation, to provide for paid assistance and rock-crushers, substantial improvement is being made to the roads, and the prisoners are relieved from the Penitentiary. But the quarters at the workhouse should be improved as to light and ventilation and comfort in sleeping, and a proper hospital is needed, all of which has been recommended by the Board of Public Charities.

Buncombe County jail (Asheville) is in the western section. It is of brick and iron, 40 x 70 feet, three stories, with four steel cells, 7 1-2 x 11 feet, and 6 of iron, 8 x 10 feet. Is fire-proof. Supplied with hose and water connections, well warmed and lighted. Prisoners in winter have six blankets each. Running water from mountain spring for drinking in every cell. No restriction upon quantity of food, no punishment, cleanliness strictly preserved. Number in confinement, 17. Cost of jail, $15,000.

The poorhouse (one and one-quarter miles from Asheville) consists of a frame building, 168 x 14 feet, with fourteen rooms, and one 56 x 14, with four rooms. No protection from fire. Well ventilated, heated, and supplied with pure water. Has accommodations for 60 persons, with 34 now in charge. Ample food, including coffee and milk. Average cost, $1.25 per week. The chairman of county

commissioners takes general supervision. A committee of ladies from the Asheville Flower Mission make regular visits, and give the inmates much attention, including religious instruction. Three acres of land in property donated to the county. Buildings cost $2,500.

Criminal Statistics of 1889.— It may not be without interest to the Conference to report the results of a recent act, requiring clerks of courts in North Carolina to report the statistics of criminal trials. By a tabulation carefully made, it appears that in 1889 there were 7,695 trials,— 4,409 whites, 3,279 negroes, and 7 Indians. These figures represent the average population. Of offenders, 6,848 were males, and 849 females. Of capital cases, the number was 114,— namely, murder, 58; rape, 18; arson, 6; burglary, 31. The convictions were: burglary, 2; arson, 1; murder, 5; rape, 1. Of larceny there were 1,227 cases, and of misdemeanors 6,354.

One woman was tried for burglary, which is believed to be the only instance on record in the State. Larceny prevails chiefly in the east, among the negro population. In the west, in the mountainous section, assaults and other species of violence are more numerous.

The crimes most common in 1889 were assaults, assault and battery, assault with intent to kill, fornication and adultery, retailing liquor without license, carrying concealed weapons, disturbing religious worship, forgery, maiming stock, cruelty to animals, and malicious mischief.

The crimes of great rarity were dynamiting (2), grave robbery, highway robbery (2), poisoning, selling unsound meat, blackmailing, waylaying, burning church, libel, incest (2), contempt, obstructing river.

The average age of criminals was thirty years.

State Penitentiary; Colonel P. F. Faison, president Board Directors; Colonel W. I. Hicks, architect and warden. The prison buildings are as nearly absolutely fire-proof as is possible with the use of any combustible material in any portion: foundations of granite to 4 feet above ground; remainder, heavy brick walls; slate roof. Main building, 625 x 58 1-2, with administrative building in front, 84 x 70, and domestic building, 36 x 168 feet. Will contain 800 cells, 5 x 8 feet from floor to floor. Independent ventilating flue to each cell, ending in air-chamber, connected with globe ventilator, in shaft of which is a coil of steam-pipe, to insure quick and constant

ventilation. Heated by steam, direct radiation; the hospital, by indirect radiation. Prisoners furnished a mattress and sufficient clothing for each, and are comfortable in the coldest weather. On Nov. 1, 1889, there were 1,356 convicts: white males, 226; colored males, 1,066; white females, 5; colored females, 59. Sexes occupy separate buildings. Food: one-half to three-quarters pound salt meat daily, or one to one and one-half pounds fresh meat, with vegetables and coffee, and as much bread as desired. Sick and invalids well cared for, with ample hospital room and good medical attendants. Surgeon of prison inspects all camps. At each camp an approved physician employed, who makes weekly and monthly reports to surgeon in Raleigh.

Distribution of convicts: in prison at Raleigh, 235 (of whom 54 are employed by the Wetmore Shoe and Leather Company); C., F. & Y. V. R.R. at Millboro, 280; do. on Fayetteville & Wilmington, 120; North Carolina Midland, 112; Roanoke & Southern, 109; Greystone Granite Company, 48; Powell Farm, 75; Bledsoe Farm, 58; Roanoke Farm, 25; Western N. C. R.R., 294. Total, 1,356. Convicts whose labor has been contracted for by individuals or corporations are under absolute control of Board of Directors, contractor having no rights but a reasonable day's labor under supervision of officer appointed and paid by the Board. All convict camps inspected monthly by the president of the Board or the warden. Laws on this subject in full in North Carolina Code, vol. ii., § 3433. No change in food, clothing, or general treatment of convicts has taken place since the adoption in 1889 of the policy of making the penitentiary as nearly self-supporting as possible. Regular religious instruction is provided, and a weekly Sunday-school held through the assistance of kind citizens of Raleigh.

Religious and other Voluntary Charities receiving No Aid from the State.— It is proper in referring to the charitable efforts on the part of the churches and benevolent citizens in North Carolina to call attention to its situation as a State. It is so largely agricultural that no State on the Atlantic seaboard (except Florida) is so devoid of large towns, not one reaching 30,000. The people live in the country, without any great aggregations of wealth or population. Few are wealthy; but, on the other hand, there are few tramps, no suffering factory population (such a thing as a strike is unknown), and in some counties the poorhouse is untenanted. The contrasts of life have not been so sharply drawn as in most of the other States. But this state

of things is now gradually changing. With an area equal to that of England, and a length sufficient, if turned upon her western extremity as a pivot to reach Lake Erie, North Carolina is now developing economic changes that must bring changed social conditions and needs. Her 60 cotton factories in 1880 have become 120. She is opening her iron, copper, coal, and gold mines. More railroad mileage was built in 1889 than in any State of the Union except one; and the last property assessment (1889) exhibits a gain of $11,000,000 in three years, even in the face of extraordinary agricultural depression.

A warmer interest than heretofore is being shown in various localities in benevolent enterprises; and, though few as yet and limited as to means, substantial good is effected, and the bright history of many other communities, it is to be hoped, may be repeated in beneficence and true wisdom, as our people learn to appreciate the worth of the self-denial and laborious exertions of those engaged in this great work.

The Thomasville Orphanage, J. H. Mills, general manager: Opened Nov. 11, 1885. The premises include 306 acres land, 12 brick buildings, 10 wooden buildings, 5 families of children,—24 children in each family. Total number of orphans, 120. Number of officers, 12. The curriculum includes the usual English branches, moral science, good manners, laws of health, etc. The industries taught boys are printing, bricking, and farming; for girls, housework, cutting and sewing, washing, ironing, making soap, milking, etc. Orphans received from five to twelve years old, and discharged at sixteen. No endowment. Supported by voluntary contributions. Officers and orphans eat at same tables, and fare alike. This institution owes its existence entirely to the labors of the general manager.

The Thompson Orphanage, Rev. E. A. Osborne, superintendent (Charlotte): Organized in 1887. This is a training institution for aiding orphans and homeless children. Is under the charge of the Episcopal Church, and supported mainly by that body; but its benefits are expended to all alike. Has a building, with farming land, of value of $10,000. Superintendent's house built in 1889. Hospital and chapel recommenced. 38 children now in charge, supported and educated for about $3,000 annually. There are six employees. No endowment. Supported by voluntary contributions, and in part by supplies raised on farm. It is desired to publish a journal, to aid in reaching the benevolent.

Children's Home, Asheville: Established March, 1890. Has 20 children in charge. Under county control, and is managed by a committee of ladies and gentlemen appointed by the county commissioners. The county pays what is not contributed by citizens. The cost for two months of its operation has been $3 per capita, owing to gifts of clothing and furnishing by the committee and others interested.

St. John's Hospital, Raleigh: A. P. C. Bryan, chairman of managers; Dr. P. E. Hines, medical superintendent. Organized in 1878, on an outfit of $150, with three beds. Income has gradually increased from $500 to $700, up to $2,200 in 1889. Cost per patient monthly, about $15.50. Property of value of $5,000, on which there is a debt of $1,100. Medical services without charge. No endowment. Supported by voluntary contributions, chiefly by regular contributions from citizens of Raleigh. Under management of Episcopal Church, but its benefits conferred upon all.

St. Peter's Hospital, Charlotte: Mrs. Julia Fox, president; Mrs. J. Wilkes, secretary. Founded Jan. 1, 1876, by Church Aid Society of St. Peter's (P.E.) Church. Hospital kept open ever since. Incorporated in 1880, and placed under a board of nine managers, female communicants of St. Peter's, with rector and wardens as advisory committee. Accommodates 12 patients. Number now on the increase. No one turned away, when possible to take him. No restriction as to locality of home. It is a home as well as hospital, as shelter is given to those who would suffer without it. No endowment. Supported by small monthly subscriptions or donations. Expenses, $900 per annum. Number of patients annually, 40 to 65. It is a hospital for charity, but has some pay patients. Conducted in brick building erected for its purposes, at cost of $2,200.

The Good Samaritan Hospital, Charlotte: Now being erected in Charlotte. Handsome brick building, with hot and cold water, baths, etc. When finished, is to accommodate 16 patients, 8 of each sex. Erected by the efforts of the women of St. Peter's (P.E.) Church, and designed for colored patients, as a part of the work of colored missions of that church. Is to be opened in the fall of 1890. Has been largely built by the aid of donations from the North, but must depend upon voluntary contributions, chiefly of the community, for its maintenance. After the efforts of nine years, $2,700 has been collected to buy the lot and build.

The Mission Hospital, Asheville: Mrs. Carmichael, president; Miss Patton, secretary and treasurer. Founded 1885. Managed by a

committee of ladies chosen from the Episcopal, Methodist, Baptist, and Presbyterian churches of the city. Supported by voluntary contributions, with a small appropriation from the county. Average number of patients annually, about 100, at a cost of $2,500 a year. Incorporated. Managers elect medical staff. The following extract from Dr. Battle's report, Jan. 1, 1890, shows movement of population for 1889: —

Remaining from 1888, 6; admitted, 93; discharged cured, 80; discharged improved, 6; died, 7; births, 2; continued to 1890, 9. Of deaths, two were infants, hopeless when admitted.

Presbyterian Orphans' Home, Charlotte: This institution is designed for destitute children of the Presbyterian denomination, between six and sixteen years of age. It is under the care of the Synod of North Carolina. A committee was authorized in February, 1890, to purchase a site agreed upon, containing forty acres, near Charlotte, at $4,000. It is contemplated to use $20,000 for buildings. Has a Board of Regents, of which Rev. J. Rumple, D.D., is chairman. The constitution was adopted February, 1889. As it is just beginning, the number is nominal.

It will be observed that nearly all these benevolent institutions are of very recent establishment, and the feeling is favorable to the multiplying of such good works in our State.

No report upon immigration could be obtained. The Bureau of Immigration maintained by the State has no record of foreign immigration.

C. B. Denson.

NORTH DAKOTA. *Estimated Population*, 180,000.

Not much has occurred in the last year which will be of especial interest to the Conference, yet seemingly rather unimportant occurrences may have a deep influence on the work of this character in future. The act for the location hereafter of an institution for the feeble-minded at Jamestown, under the same management as the Hospital for the Insane, with a rich donation of lands from the State, assures us of a provision for this class of unfortunates as soon as the new commonwealth is safely out of the troublous financial times which at present embarrass all her efforts. A bill for the creation of a State Board, having control of all the institutions, passed both houses of the legislature, but was vetoed by the governor

on the ground that it made too much demand on the time of the aforesaid officers. In consequence, the system of local boards still prevails.

The salaries of the officers of the State Penitentiary at Bismarck were cut down extensively, and some well-paid positions abolished entirely. The appropriations for the different institutions, and especially for the Hospital for Insane, were very liberal, considering the economical system which the State is, under present circumstances, obliged to adopt toward her institutions.

A bill for the establishment of an institution for the deaf and dumb at Devil's Lake City passed both houses, was vetoed by the governor on the ground that the present financial condition of the State did not warrant the starting of any more new institutions, and was passed over the veto.

At the coming meeting of the State Medical Society at Jamestown, on the 27th and 28th of May, it will be my endeavor to get the interest of the profession in this State aroused to the condition of the feeble-minded and imbecile children of the State. I will discuss their present status and try to get some active measures taken looking toward provision for them.

O. W. ARCHIBALD, M.D.

PENNSYLVANIA. *Estimated Population*, 5,285,000.

A.

Whole number of insane,	6,884	
Average number, about	6,498	
Cost for the year 1889, excluding construction expenses,		$1,296,565.04
Private patients,	874	
Public patients,	6,010	

B.

Number in insane hospitals,	6,236	
Number of insane in almshouses,	624	
Number of insane in prisons,	24	
Public poor in 49 county almshouses: whole number remaining Sept. 30, 1889, including the 624 insane inmates,	8,263	
Amount expended for their support, deducting receipts,		$1,084,714.63
Outdoor relief in 49 counties: whole number supported during the year ending Sept. 30, 1889,	17,008	
Expended for their support,		$259,202.50
Township poor in 18 counties: whole number supported during the year,	5,024	
Amount expended for their support,		$319,954.55

C.

Whole number of children in homes and poorhouses on Sept. 30, 1889, about	*9,234	

The different Children's Aid Societies of the Commonwealth in various counties (notably the Philadelphia and Pittsburg societies) are constantly at work securing homes in private families or in public institutions, etc., for children bereft of parents or otherwise unfortunate. They have been especially active in removing children between two and sixteen years of age from almshouses, and placing them in private families and homes. State aid has been and is extended to these societies. Four hundred and thirty-seven different children were supported in families during the year 1889, ending September 30.

D.

Whole number of prisoners on Sept. 30, 1889,	†6,846	
Average number, about	5,500	
Cost of support above earnings,		$923,929.84
Number in State penitentiaries Sept. 30, 1889,	1,788	
Cost therein above earnings derived from labor,		$157,368.13
At the Eastern State Penitentiary at Philadelphia, conducted on the separate or individual system, the number of prisoners remaining Sept. 30, 1889, was	1,076	
Average daily number,	1,154	
Cost of support per capita per annum, labor and profits deducted,		$57.95
At the Western State Penitentiary at Allegheny, conducted on the congregate system, the number of prisoners remaining Sept. 30, 1889, was	712	
Average daily number,	666	
Cost of support per capita, labor and profits deducted,		$134.96
Number in county jails, workhouses, houses of correction, and houses of refuge,	4,903	
Cost above earnings derived from labor,		$742,381.71

A State Industrial Reformatory for young men between fifteen and twenty-five years (first offenders) has been recently opened at Huntingdon.

E.

Immigrants.—Number received during the year ending June 30, 1889, 27,745

From Ireland,	6,751	From Wales,	333
England,	7,083	Scotland,	2,191

* Of this number, 434 are reported in Section B, the public poor.

† Of this number, 1,236 were inmates of houses of refuge.

From Switzerland,	22	From Russia,	641
Sweden,	1,949	Poland,	1,292
Norway,	1,332	Belgium,	206
Spain,	25	Holland,	24
Hungary,	93	Italy,	81
Greece,	57	Denmark,	312
Germany,	4,554	Austria,	128
France,	306	Unknown,	
All other countries,	365		

The State Board of Charities, by appointment of the Secretary of the Treasury, acts as an Immigration Board.

The State appropriations to the various institutions for the year 1889 amounted to $1,608,331.05.

RHODE ISLAND. *Estimated Population*, 345,000.

On Jan. 1, 1890, there were in the insane asylum 493 inmates, with an average for 1889 of 495. The State Almshouse receives only such paupers as have acquired no residence in any town of the State or in another State, and had on Jan. 1, 1890, 255 inmates, the average for 1889 being 231. At the workhouse are common drunkards, vagrants, and prostitutes: no criminals are sent here. On Jan. 1, 1890, the inmates numbered 244, of whom 193 were men and 51 were women, with an average for 1889 of 236. The net cost of each inmate in these three institutions for the year 1889 was $112.21, or $2.16 per week.

In the State Prison, on Jan. 1, 1890, were 136 inmates, the average for 1889 being 125. These are employed upon contract, making shoes and light iron-work. In the Providence County Jail, on Jan. 1, 1890, were 255 prisoners, the average for 1889 being 252. During the year 1889 there were committed to this jail 2,113 persons, of whom 1,601 were men and 136 were women. 240 of these could neither read nor write. Some of the jail men work upon contract with prison convicts: others work at gardening, grading, and other sorts of field work. These two institutions are enclosed by the same walls, the warden of the prison being also keeper of the jail. Their united cost for 1889 was $42,257; their income, $29,316. The excess of cost over income, or the net cost, was $12,941.

In the Sockanosset School were on Jan. 1, 1890, boys to the number of 230, the average for 1889 being 204.

In the Oak Lawn School on Jan. 1, 1890, were 36 girls. The average for 1889 was 37.

In the seven institutions, the average number of inmates during 1889 was 1,585; and the cost of their support was for each $106.72, or at the rate of $2.05 per week.

In each county there is a jail, used mainly as a place of temporary detention. The whole number of prisoners in these jails was on Jan. 1, 1890, but seven persons.

There are no county almshouses. Each town cares for its own poor in its own almshouse.

A new State Almshouse is being erected, at the estimated cost of $225,000. An appropriation of $75,000 has been asked for the enlargement of Providence County Jail.

Last year $160,000 was appropriated for current expenses of the institutions at Cranston.

In the town of North Providence is a State Home and School for destitute children, governed by the State Board of Education, whose annual cost is $15,000.

A number of orphan asylums are conducted by Roman Catholics at their own expense, who have also a Home for Indigent Old Men.

In Providence there is an Old Men's Home, and an Old Ladies' Home, and a Shelter for Colored Children, which are controlled by incorporated societies, and sustained by private charity.

Butler Hospital for the Insane receives no appropriation from the State. At this institution there were, in 1889, of males 69 and of females 88, who were cared for at a cost of $10.52 per week.

Besides all that I have thus rapidly named, there are in the State many lesser charitable institutions, supported by private contributions. No facts of interest concerning these are, however, accessible to me at this time.

SOUTH DAKOTA. *Estimated Population*, 380,000.

The appropriations by the South Dakota legislature of 1890 for current expenses of State institutions are reported as follows: —

School for Deaf Mutes,	$14,800
Penitentiary,	31,311
Insane Hospital,	64,690
Soldiers' Home,	10,000

The institutions of South Dakota consist of: —

I. Insane Hospital at Yankton.
II. South Dakota Penitentiary at Sioux Falls.
III. School for Deaf and Dumb at Sioux Falls.
IV. Reform School at Plankinton.

The poor are supported by the counties, under the direction of the county commissioners. Criminals and insane are accommodated by the State in its institutions, at State expense. All insane persons not admitted to the hospitals are supported at the expense of their county. The estimated cost of the insane of all Dakota during the years 1887, 1888, was $300,000, including the construction funds of both hospitals, as well as the actual maintenance of inmates, salaries of officials, etc. The number of insane treated during the past two years in both hospitals of Dakota was about 600; average number of inmates in both years, at any one time, 261.

There are no data which will give the information desired concerning the public poor, children, and criminals.

A movement is now on foot to establish an institution for the care and training of feeble-minded children.

THEO. D. KANOUSE.

TENNESSEE. *Estimated Population*, 1,804,000.

Tennessee has no State Board of Charities or Lunacy Commission. The Boards of Trustees of the three insane hospitals do the duties of the former, and the courts exercise the usual functions of the latter. The State has a Superintendent of Prisons.

No State reports are made to any functionary of amounts expended for charitable or correctional uses, except those for State institutions for the insane, blind, deaf and dumb, and from the Reform School and the State Prison. County, city, and town reports are not made to the State authorities.

The State supports 820 insane persons. It leases about 1,200 or 1,300 convicts for the sum of $100,000 per annum, the lessees providing food, clothing, etc., and custody. Insane persons and paupers are not divided by any statutory provision into State, county, and town charges. A number of the counties have insane departments attached to their almshouses.

As to the insane paupers, the whole number — 820 — supported by the State is at the annual cost of $139,400. The three insane asylums carry on an average about 100 insane persons at private cost, at the charge of $5 per week for board, care, and treatment.

TEXAS. *Estimated Population*, 2,140,000.

Texas has neither a State Board of Charities nor of Lunacy. She has two lunatic asylums filled to overflowing, and a third is under construction. These are managed by their respective boards and superintendents. There are probably 800 to 1,000 in the two institutions.

Each county cares for its own paupers on its poor-farms. There are no houses of correction or refuge in connection with any of our cities.

The State has an Orphan's Home, opened within the last year, which has only 30 or 40 occupants. There are two children's homes on a small scale (supported by charity).

Two Deaf and Dumb Institutions — one for white and one for colored — care for the deaf and dumb youth, at State expense. The one for blacks is officered by negroes; and I was informed some months ago by his Excellency Governor Ross that it is one of the best managed institutions in the State.

There are two penitentiaries in the State. At the two are worked about 1,600 convicts on railroad work, about 1,300 on contract farms (cotton), on share farms 250, and on State farms (sugar, 150; cotton, 100) about 250, making a total of about 3,400,— all under State control (no lease). Those outside are hired by the day or month: those inside the walls are wholly on State account. The whole system is under a superintendent and Penitentiary Board (directing), with assistant superintendent at each penitentiary, and two inspectors of the same rank who supervise the outside forces.

The House of Correction and Reformatory over which I preside has been in existence fifteen months. I began with 25 boys taken from the penitentiary. I now have 70 boys and 1 girl,— she was convicted under the old law. Girls are not admitted here under the present law. And we are not only growing in numbers, but I trust in efficiency. Several boys have been discharged by expiration of sentence and by pardon; and we have one (white) boy apprenticed and one (black) boy on ticket of leave, from both of whom we have satisfactory reports. Most of the boys give no trouble. A few white boys — mostly *tramps* from other States — have given us trouble, trying to escape.

The Blind Asylum is about the oldest and best institution in the State.

All State institutions are supported liberally by State appropria-

tions; and all legislation in Texas of late years has been of a philanthropic spirit and looking to the amelioration of all her unfortunate classes, whether diseased or criminal. Of course, we have not yet reached that perfection that has been attained by our older States, but the strides of the last ten years have been marvellous; and we expect in another ten years to be abreast with most of the *old* States in all these particulars.

BEN. E. MCCULLOCH.

VIRGINIA. *Estimated Population*, 1,878,000.

Reports are sent to the Governor of the State from the directors of the four insane asylums and from the superintendent of the penitentiary.

The report of the State Auditor includes a statement of the amount paid during the fiscal year for criminal charges in each city and county in the State. Total for year 1887–88, $241,030.13. The commitments are not given, and there is no classification. Paupers are provided for in the counties and towns where they belong. Criminals whose sentence is for less than one year are kept in the county jails: those whose sentence is for a longer time are sent to the State Penitentiary in Richmond, a report from which is published annually.

1,710 insane appear as inmates of the four asylums at the close of the fiscal year. No satisfactory figures. The superintendent of one asylum says, and he represents his associates in the work throughout the State: "In this connection, we call your attention to the subject of pay patients in State asylums, supported by an annual allowance from the State treasury. Would it not be far better to abolish the custom of having any such in any of our State asylums? It is a double tax on the friends of the pay patient, who pay taxes and are taxed again when the patient enters the asylum. Justice permits no discrimination in favor of any class, and none is made, either in receiving patients here or after they have been received, in their accommodation or their treatment; and yet those paying always feel that they are at a disadvantage.

"Finally, the State asylums, by their very low charges, entering into competition with private asylums, have really killed and destroyed those which have been started in the State and have prevented the establishment of any others."

In the State Penitentiary: white men, 185; white women, 4; colored men, 726; colored women, 66. Total, 981.

The cost of supporting these is so far complicated by the system of convict leases that it is impossible to get correct figures.

WEST VIRGINIA. *Estimated Population*, 775,000.

The conditions of this State are such that the report from here of matters relating to the affairs of the Conference is of slight importance. The population is widely scattered, there are many counties that have no railroads whatever, and the people live in a very primitive way. Outside of Wheeling there is no town of over twelve thousand inhabitants. Hence the distress incident to large cities does not exist, and the attention of our people and legislature has not been turned to the need of providing for such.

The only State Board of any kind is the State Board of Health; but it has no power beyond that of ascertaining the qualifications of persons desiring to practise medicine or do business as druggists, and reporting to the legislature upon the sanitary conditions of the State.

The insane are cared for by the State, paupers by the counties. In some cases, the care of them is intrusted to the judge of the County Court. In others, the county commissioners make the necessary provisions.

Whole number of insane in hospital at Weston during year ending Sept. 30, 1889, 983. Whole cost for the year, $122,590. There are at Weston no insane persons supported at private cost. Those so cared for are sent to hospitals out of the State.

The only information in regard to prisoners available is the report of the State Penitentiary at Moundsville. Each county has its jail, but no report is made to the State authorities. There are no reformatories at present, though the legislature has appropriated money to provide a reformatory institution for juvenile offenders.

Whole number of prisoners in penitentiary, 258. Whole cost for year, $42,287.55. Cost of prisoners, $21,178.50.

R. R. Swope.

WYOMING TERRITORY. *Estimated Population*, 60,000.

The system of taking care of dependent classes has been somewhat primitive, but with the growth of population different methods will be adopted.

The poor are supported by the counties, and in most cases afforded temporary relief to meet their immediate necessities, or assisted to return to their friends, the principal object being to keep the expenditures at a minimum. There is no permanent class of paupers in Wyoming, and it is hardly to be expected that counties will maintain a poorhouse when the paupers average less than a half-dozen in any one county. With the exception of the Laramie County Hospital, there are no houses open to the public poor in the Territory. Under the present condition of things, the laws for taking care of this class are perhaps as favorable as any that could be passed.

There is no institution in the Territory where unfortunate children can be well cared for, and it frequently happens that their only refuge is in the jails. In many places, a home is provided for children under fifteen years of age, whose surroundings are pernicious.

The annual report of the commissioners of the asylum is presented in printed form, and shows in detail all expenditures and rules, and contains general recommendations. The commission recommends the enactment of a law making the expense of the care of the patients a Territorial charge instead of a charge against the counties. This recommendation is made because some of the counties have not transferred their insane to the care of the Territorial asylum.

All of these patients can be well cared for and maintained at the asylum. Each county should keep all of its indigent insane at this institution, and it should be unlawful for any county to keep or maintain any such patients at any other place at public expense.

By reason of the refusal of one of our counties to transfer its insane to the asylum, other counties have declined to bear their portion of the expense, and the per capita cost of maintaining the patients now in the asylum has been greatly increased.

According to the report of the penitentiary commissioners, there were confined at the Illinois Penitentiary Oct. 1, 1889, 68 convicts; at Jacksonville (Ill.) Asylum, 2 insane convicts; at Golden (Col.) State Industrial School, 8 juvenile delinquents. Total, 78.

Convicts are maintained at Joliet under contract at 25 cents per day, exclusive of clothing and medicine; insane convicts at Jacksonville, at $25 per month; and the juvenile delinquents at Golden, for $3.60 per week. There is also an expense of $3 at Joliet and $12 at Golden paid to each delinquent upon his discharge. The total amount expended by the penitentiary commissioners for one year, ending Sept. 30, 1889, was $13,925.28. This includes the cost of transportation as well as other expenses of the commissioners. Viewed from an economical standpoint, this system of providing for

convicts is much less than it would be to maintain a penitentiary in the Territory, especially in view of the fact that all contract labor in prisons is prohibited by our laws.

The commissioners report the appropriation of $20,000 made by the Tenth Legislative Assembly for maintenance and transportation of convicts is insufficient. They estimate that the requirements of the two years following March 31, 1890, will probably reach $28,000 for maintenance and transportation. An additional appropriation of $2,300 is asked for contingent expenses, and $3,500 for maintaining juvenile delinquents. The commission calls attention to § 1779, Revised Statutes, and asks that it be amended so that prisoners may hereafter be moved from one penitentiary to another without a resentence of the court, whenever, by reason of a new contract or otherwise, another prison is designated as the Territorial penitentiary.

The scope of authority of the penitentiary commissioners ought to be enlarged, or its powers merged in a Territorial Board of Charities and Correction, who, in addition to looking after the Territorial convicts, would exercise a governing supervision in regard to insane persons, paupers, prisoners, and other dependent persons. By this it is not meant to take away the executive power of boards of trustees of any institution, but the right to inspect and report upon the condition of the Territorial institutions and county jails, and, in cases where there is a gross violation of the laws, to cause the abuse to be corrected. The board should have power to condemn jails or police stations that are unsafe to keep prisoners in with ordinary vigilance by the jailer, or are dangerous to the health of the prisoners, or do not provide for the proper separation of men from women, or the old from the young, as provided by law.

The commissioners' statement on file gives in detail all of the expenditures made on the Wyoming Penitentiary at Rawlins. As the bill now before Congress for the admission of Wyoming provides for the transfer of the United States Penitentiary at Laramie City to the Territory, a question to be decided is whether two penitentiaries for the State will be necessary, and, if not, which one of the two shall be converted to another purpose. If it should be concluded that the penitentiary building at Rawlins had best be turned to other uses than at first contemplated, then no further money should be expended on the present plans. The location, however, of the penitentiary at Rawlins having been made in good faith, there should be such legislation as will provide for the utilization of the building at that point.

ROBERT C. MORRIS.

XV.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Baltimore, Md., Wednesday night, May 14, 1890.

The Seventeenth Annual Session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction began on Wednesday night, May 14, 1890, in Lehman's Hall, Baltimore, Hon. Joseph M. Cushing, chairman of the Local Committee, presiding. Music was furnished by a quartette of male voices. Letters from the Hon. E. E. Jackson, Governor of Maryland, from Hon. Grover Cleveland, and others, were read. A telegram of greeting was also read from Mrs. J. S. Sperry, of Colorado.

Prayer was offered by Rev. John G. Morris, D.D., Lutherville, Md.; and addresses of welcome were made by Mayor Davidson, of Baltimore (page 1), and by Hon. Charles J. Bonaparte (page 2).

Addresses in response were made by Oscar C. McCulloch, of Indianapolis (page 5), and Rev. Myron W. Reed, of Denver, Col. (page 7).

The President's address was made by Dr. A. G. Byers (page 9).

On motion of Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, of New York, it was voted that the President should appoint a Business Committee, consisting of five, a Committee on Organization, consisting of eleven, a Committee on Time and Place, to be made up of one delegate from each State and Territory represented, and one on Credentials, made up in the same way.

At 10 P.M., the Conference adjourned to the Gymnasium of the Johns Hopkins University, where a reception was given to the members by the people of Baltimore.

SECOND SESSION.

Thursday morning, May 15.

The Conference met at Levering Hall at 9.30 A.M., and was called to order by the President, Dr. A. G. Byers. Prayer was offered by Rev. Edward A. Lawrence, of Baltimore.

An invitation to visit Washington, signed by J. W. Douglas, President of the Board of Commissioners, and to attend a reception given to the delegates by the President of the United States, Hon. Benjamin Harrison, was read by the Secretary.

A letter of greeting from Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of San Francisco, was read by the Secretary.

The following telegram was read by the Secretary: —

> The Charity Organization Association of Denver salutes the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and assures members that hearty welcome awaits them in Denver in 1892.
>
> (Signed) SAMUEL A. ELIOT.

The secretary of the Local Committee, John M. Glenn, extended invitations to visit various charities and libraries in the city.

Rev. Louis F. Zinkhan invited members of the Conference to visit the jail.

Hon. W. P. Letchworth, of New York, called the attention of the Conference to the fact that Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, one of the most successful kindergarten workers in the United States, had sent on a package of reports of kindergarten work in California for distribution.

Letters from the Governor of Indiana, Hon. Alvin P. Hoey, of Indiana, from George D. Tanner, President of the Indianapolis Board of Trade, from the Mayor of Indianapolis, and the Commercial Club of that city, inviting the Conference to hold its next session there, were read by the Secretary. An invitation to hold the next meeting in Cincinnati, signed by Hon. H. M. Neff, the Mayor, and others, was read. An invitation to the Conference from Tennessee was also read by Mrs. M. C. Goodlett. All of these invitations were referred to the Committee on Time and Place.

Rev. C. G. Trusdell, of Chicago, suggested that the meeting of the Conference for 1893 should be made an International Conference of Charities and Correction, and should be held in Chicago during the time of the World's Fair.

Mr. N. S. Rosenau, of Buffalo, favored this suggestion, and moved

that the Committee on Business, when appointed, be requested to consider the matter of holding an International Conference of Charities and Correction in connection with the World's Fair in Chicago in 1893, and to present a plan for the immediate organization of a committee to take charge of the same. Adopted.

Mrs. Sara A. Spencer, of Washington, urged the Conference to accept the invitation to visit Washington at the close of its session in Baltimore.

Dr. W. W. Godding also gave a hearty invitation to the members to accept this invitation to Washington, and invited those who were interested to visit the National Hospital for the Insane, under his care in Washington.

Hon. Arthur MacArthur, of Washington, also urged the Conference to accept the invitation to Washington.

The invitation was unanimously accepted.

The regular order of the day, Reports from States, was then taken up. Mr. McCulloch took the President's chair. Lucius C. Storrs, of the Committee on Reports from States, took charge of his department, and made a report for the committee (page 313).

At the close of his report, Mr. Storrs referred to the death of Hon. John J. Wheeler, which took place on the thirtieth day of January last.

Mr. Wheeler, said Mr. Storrs, was for years most deeply interested in all the questions of charity and reform which have had the attention and have received the best thought of this Conference. He was a man of strong convictions, and ever had the courage of such convictions. A very reticent man, his voice was not often heard; but he thought deeply, and, when he did speak, he uttered wise words, — words that were always the expression of careful and matured thought. He was for many years the State Corresponding Secretary of this organization for Michigan, and the record of its proceedings bears evidence of the care and pains taken by him to make the report from his State complete and accurate.

For eight consecutive years Mr. Wheeler was a member of the Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities. He brought to that office a deep interest in and marked intelligence regarding its objects, and gave to the prosecution of its duties most freely his time and talents without compensation, except that compensation which is beyond the power of gold to measure. The statutes of Michigan, in their charitable, penal, and reformatory provisions, bear the impress

of his hand, of his brain, and of his untiring efforts. We are permitted to cherish the memory of his pure and useful life, and would place on the record of the proceedings of this Conference our expression of love and esteem for the departed. With this in view, I offer the following resolutions: —

Resolved, That in the death of Mr. John J. Wheeler, the State Corresponding Secretary for Michigan, this National Conference is compelled to drop from its membership the name of one who was deeply interested and intelligent by study and observation of its work, and whose words were ever valuable in its discussions; and that this Conference indorses the commendation of his associates on the Board of Corrections and Charities in his own State as to the value of his services to the State institutions, and through them to the great cause of humanity to which this Conference is devoted.

Resolved, That, in token of our regard, this minute be placed on our records, and a copy transmitted to the family of Mr. Wheeler and to the Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities.

Hon. A. E. Elmore seconded the resolution, saying: "Mr. Wheeler, to those who knew him, needs no eulogy. He was a straightforward, honest man. There was no nonsense about him at all. I want to vote for that resolution."

The resolution was unanimously adopted.

The States were called upon in order. The written reports which were presented will be found in the chapter "Reports from States" (page 313). A few persons made verbal reports, abstracts of which follow: —

Mrs. C. B. Brown, M.D., California.— The San Francisco almshouse has an unusually beautiful location. But heretofore the institution itself has been far in the background. The superintendent within the past year has been removed by death, and his place has been filled by the appointment of Mr. P. H. Weaver, an admirable business man. His first work was to clear all the children out of the almshouse. In that work he was greatly helped by a gift from Mrs. Charles Crocker, before her death, to the Children's Hospital, for establishing a ward for incurable children. People have not learned to recognize the fact that there are incurable children; but it is a fact, and such children are frequently lodged in almshouses. The heirs of Mrs. Crocker, after her death, provided a fund which gives permanent support to this ward.

Mrs. A. Jacobs, of Colorado.— The Associated Charities of Denver are now well organized. We have fourteen associations represented. Rev. Myron W. Reed is president. All efforts possible are being made to prevent pauperism and to build the State up in a better way. We have no almshouses, but we have a county hospital taking care of

the poor and sick. There are other hospitals under the care of churches which take the sick of the better class. Colorado has an unusual number of sick persons to care for, from the fact that the lovely climate brings so many invalids there, many coming in the last stages of consumption. As a large proportion come without means, they have to be taken care of by hospitals and other institutions, as they are usually too sick to do much toward their own support. It is an imposition for any city or State to send their poor and sick to other States without making provision for their care on reaching their destination.

A. E. Elmore, of Wisconsin, called attention to the omission of the State of Wisconsin in a list of States having State Boards, which was printed in a pamphlet issued by the Charity Organization Society of Baltimore, under the auspices of the Johns Hopkins University. The pamphlet in question was a translation of a paper written by Dr. Aschrott. Mr. Elmore thought there was little excuse for the omission of a State which for so many years had had so active a State Board, the value of the work of which had been recognized in as distant a country as Van Diemen's Land, and which in certain directions had commanded the approbation of the best English authorities. Mr. Elmore said that, as the States were called upon alphabetically, and as his came at the very last, he wished to call attention to this matter now.

Dr. Byers.— Although Wisconsin is the last State on the list, it is represented by one of the first men in the Conference.

On motion of Mr. Elmore, it was voted that no member should be allowed to speak more than five minutes in debate, except by unanimous consent of the Conference.

On motion of Mr. G. S. Griffith, the reports from States were suspended, and a paper on "The Prisoner's Sunday," by General Brinkerhoff, was read (page 309). At the close of his paper, General Brinkerhoff offered the following resolution: —

Resolved, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction, recognizing the importance of the prison question in its various relations to human society, and especially in its moral and religious phases, cordially approve the recommendations of the National Prison Association in regard to the observance of the fourth Sunday in October by all churches and other religious associations as a special occasion for the consideration of questions pertaining to the reformation of prisoners and the prevention of crime.

The motion was seconded by Lucius C. Storrs, of Michigan.

Miss E. C. Putnam, of Boston, moved that the resolution should be amended by inserting the words, "after careful study of the question."

Mr. McCulloch.— A very important amendment.

Dr. Byers.— Put it in by all means.

General Brinkerhoff accepted the amendment.

Charles W. Birtwell, of Boston.— I enter my humble protest against this amendment. I think it is hardly courteous to the clergy to go out of our way to tell them that they ought to study a question before presenting it.

Mr. Storrs.— I dislike above all things to protest against any resolution offered by a lady, but I agree with Mr. Birtwell. The State of Michigan has observed Prisoner's Sunday for four years. In 1886, we sent out to the clergymen a postal-card, stating that such a Sunday was to be observed, and asking them to observe it, telling them that any information which the Board of Charities could furnish it would be gratified to send. The last three years we have issued a little paper of eight or ten pages to the clergymen of Michigan; and in response to that we have received a large number of postal-cards requesting information, which we have invariably forwarded. I want General Brinkerhoff's resolution adopted. The Prison Conference adopted such a resolution. I feel, after our experience in Michigan, that it is unnecessary to suggest that the ministers should make a careful study of this subject. I think they are glad to get all the information they can. If we do nothing more by passing such a resolution than to get our clergymen to visit our jails, it is well worth doing. The ecclesiastical bodies as such are taking an interest in this question now, and our clergymen are already studying the subject.

Dr. Byers.— I take it that my friend from Massachusetts is not a bit more of a preacher than my friend from Michigan. They are opposing this amendment without knowing anything about it personally. They might have left it for us preachers to oppose. They are assuming that a preacher of the gospel, a man of learning and piety, — and he ought not to be a preacher unless he is that,— must have feelings so exceedingly delicate that he can be easily offended. Away with such preachers! We have had them too long. The preacher of the gospel that could not stand that amendment ought to leave his pulpit at once, and stay out of it forever.

Mr. Storrs said that he knew many broad-minded men like Dr. Byers who would not take offence at the proposed amendment, but that he knew others who would; and he thought it essential that no one should be offended.

Dr. BYERS.— As the amendment was accepted by the original mover of the resolution, that resolution is before the Conference.

The vote was then taken, and the resolution was adopted.

The following committees were then announced: —

Committee on Business: L. C. Storrs, of Michigan; Meigs V. Crouse, of Ohio; A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin; Charles D. Kellogg, of New York; John R. Elder, of Indiana.

Committee on Organization: General R. Brinkerhoff, of Ohio; William P. Letchworth, of New York; Captain H. S. Shurtleff, of Massachusetts; Hon. Cadwalader Biddle, of Pennsylvania; J. S. Spear, Jr., of California; A. L. Welch, of Colorado; Hon. A. E. Elmore, of Wisconsin; Rev. Fred H. Wines, of Illinois; Colonel W. F. Beasley, of North Carolina; Mrs. M. C. Goodlett, of Tennessee; Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens, of Maine.

Adjourned at 12 M.

THIRD SESSION.

Thursday night, May 15.

The Conference met at 8 P.M., the President in the chair.

A paper on "Prisons and Prison Discipline" was read by H. F. Hatch, warden of the Jackson Penitentiary, Michigan (page 291).

A paper on "Juvenile Reformatories" was read by R. H. Goldsmith, M.D., of Baltimore (page 234).

A paper on "Industries for Reform Schools" was read by T. J. Charlton, of Indiana, chairman of the Committee on Juvenile Delinquents (page 214).

DISCUSSION ON REFORMATORIES.

ISRAEL C. JONES, of New York.— This paper is one of the best that I have ever heard upon this subject, embracing, as it does, the whole class of juvenile reformatories. I may say that I am here to-night as a representative of the oldest reformatory in this country. The House of Refuge that is now on Randall's Island was originally on Madison Square, near the corner of Fifth Avenue and Twenty-third Street, in the city of New York. There was a society in that city which was formed for the single purpose of doing something to prevent the spread of pauperism. Pauperism was an increasing burden upon the city even at that day. How to turn it into productive currents was the great object aimed at. This institution for the prevention of pauperism in the city of New York was organized by some of its best citizens, who began their inquiry into these questions in 1816, and followed it with great care and perseverance until 1823, when they arrived at the conclusion that pauperism and crime were largely due to families whose children were delinquent

in their childhood and youth. They began to explore the records of police courts and of the district attorney's office. Mr. Maxwell, the distinguished district attorney at the time, earnestly co-operated with the society. His record showed an immense amount of juvenile delinquency, growing into pauperism and criminality.

During the year 1822, 450 young persons, mostly children, were committed for short terms for crime or vagrancy.

In one of the most masterly reports that I have ever read, it was shown that the most dangerous criminals in that day had a few years before been little street gamins, little pilfering vagrants. How to reach this class was the question they undertook to solve. How well it was done is told in the reports of these forty-four or more institutions that Mr. Charlton has enumerated.

The organization decided that the time had arrived for an effort to be made to take in charge these juvenile delinquents, who were a menace to society and to their own interests and prosperity; and through the influence of religious culture, education, and discipline, to place them in the best possible position to get on and do well in the world; to become producers instead of being burdens to society. In order to accomplish this object, they saw that the laws were not sufficient. These children might be committed through the police courts and for a limited time placed under the care of the institution; but as soon as that time expired they would be turned loose again, to go on until they should end in prison. The question was clearly presented to them. I think there was no place, no country, at that time, where there was a law that allowed the child to be taken from the custody of parents and committed to a corporation or to a body of people to have the sole custody, control, and direction of him during minority.

This was a wholly untried field of labor; and yet these men, the best of the city, entered on that work with zeal and courage, and the results of their labors are seen in the numerous institutions established in most of the States of the Union, and it soon spread across the water.

On the 29th of March, 1824, the charter for the New York House of Refuge was granted; and on the 1st of January, 1825, that institution went into operation. It commenced with six girls and three boys, brought that morning from the police courts and placed before the audience assembled to witness the inauguration of the new institution. The work of the institution was successful from the start, and received commendation from State and municipal authorities. Its operation was first confined to the city of New York, but after one year's experience its provisions were extended to embrace the whole State. It was not then supposed that juvenile delinquency existed in the country or anywhere except in the city of New York. But that has been proven to be a mistake. At the outset, the managers found this difficulty staring them in the face. They could well provide for the tuition and for the training of their wards. They made an ap-

peal to their fellow-citizens for contributions to begin their work, to which a generous response was made; but there came at once the question, how should they provide in the future for these young delinquents food, clothing, and shelter. It was evident enough that continued appeals for private aid could not be depended upon to support the institution. There was no difficulty in getting good counsel and instruction; but, when it came to supplying provisions, clothing, and care-takers, and erecting buildings, they struck a difficulty not easily overcome. And that is the point which I urge this Convention not to pass over too lightly. How shall we provide for such delinquents? Shall we go to the legislature and ask for support for these children from the public treasury? Upon what ground shall we press our claim? How shall we ask the State to give this support? Here is a man who has neglected his children; he has allowed them to go to ruin, to become torments to society. Are the painstaking, prudent parents to pay for these children's clothing and to pay for their own children's clothing, too?

The question was a very serious one, but no more serious then than it is to-day. I know very well that there are few in the country who entirely agree with me on these points, but that makes little difference. I have this strong opinion, that whatever a person wants he must get, it will not be furnished gratis, and there is only one way to get it and be honest: he must work for it. The gentlemen of the original society came to this same conclusion. They were willing to contribute temporarily for the support of the institution; but, when they should be able to handle the labor of these boys in productive industries, they had decided views that the earnings should be applied to their maintenance, that gradually, as their ability should be developed, their earnings would increase to supply the food, clothing, shelter, and other necessaries of life. So these boys, working their own way up into a good standing in society, should be made independent citizens.

I only ask that, if a boy in a reformatory earns something, it shall be used for his benefit. I do not ask that a boy shall be made to do what is impossible. I know well enough that within a reformatory he cannot earn enough to supply all his wants. Charity will cheerfully supply the balance, when he has done his best. I only ask that this training shall be such as to develop the ability to earn, until his earnings shall balance his expenses.

But we must not forget the real object of these juvenile reformatories; namely, the reformation of the young delinquents which the State finds convenient and necessary to confide to their custody and care.

The means to accomplish this object are found in: (1) Discipline; (2) School instruction; (3) Moral and religious culture; (4) Industrial training.

Good discipline tends to establish cheerful obedience.

School instruction renders the pupil intelligent, and prepares him for his future work.

Moral and religious culture develops conscience, establishes accountability to his Maker, and defines his duties and relations to his fellowmen.

Industrial training equips the boy for competition with others in supplying his necessary wants. The first three are essential for laying a good foundation, without which little success is attainable.

With habits of obedience established, the mind enlarged, and the moral nature developed, the pupil is in condition to be benefited by industrial training.

Although industrial training is last named, it by no means is to be regarded as least in importance. Indeed, the main dependence of most of the inmates of these institutions, when they go out, is the skill they acquire in manual work while under instruction. They must be taught to earn their way in life.

Our government, the best under the sun for any class of citizens, and especially for the poor, does not undertake to be paternal, nor can it without violating its vital principles. The government has nothing to bestow. All it has comes from the people. The government is a creature of the people, and not a master; nor does it take the place of parent or guardian to any class able to provide for themselves.

If it were practicable, and I have often thought it is, I would open an account with every inmate, charging him with board, clothing, etc., and crediting him with what he may earn in the hours devoted to industrial employment.

The lesson would be important, and he would realize that his experience develops ability. I can imagine the pleasure he would have when he saw that he was able to balance his accounts and have something to his credit.

Such lessons would be of great advantage to the discipline, and be an incentive to be prudent and not wasteful, to be diligent and not lazy.

Mrs. Stevens.— Mr. Charlton said in his excellent report that, if he had left out any State or school of any State, any representative from such a State might speak. I am from Maine, and I do not want that State to be left out. We have a work for girls; for we believe that the girls are quite as important as boys, and need just as much looking after, although in a little different way. Our Industrial School for girls is carried on on the family plan. The industries are about the same as you would find in any well-regulated family. I was glad to have the Conference applaud so vigorously what Mr. Charlton quoted from Mrs. Brackett. She does not belong to Massachusetts: we have only lent her from Maine, to tell them how to do their work. That is a good deal for Maine to do.

Miss E. C. Putnam.— I want to say a word about the work done at the Lyman School for boys in Massachusetts. Our industries are not productive; *i.e.*, they do not bring in money, except to a small extent. The "Slöjd" system is used as a part of the school course,

and I think you may be interested to see the exhibition of the work. [Miss Putnam showed the models made by the boys.] It seems to us to be the very best system. First they are taught to understand form. They take a ball of clay and make first a sphere, then a cube; or they fold paper into a cube. Next they are taught to represent form upon the blackboard, and to draw on a piece of wood the outline of the thing which they are about to cut out with the jack-knife. The first thing they make is a wedge. The next is a squared stick, called a flower-stick. They are then taught to form a four-sided stick into a round stick by cutting off corners and so making eight sides, sixteen sides, and thirty-two sides, when it is already almost round. Then they draw and make a pen-handle, a hatchet-handle, and others, some of which you see. Everything that they make is something which is of real use, and, what is more important, which is a perfect thing in itself. The boys are taught by a young lady who has taken lessons of Swedish master Larsson, at Warrenton Street, Boston. She herself made models like these and many others before teaching the system. There is not the slightest trouble in securing the interest of the boys. They all take pride in their work. An hour and a half a week is given to it, and nearly every boy in the school has his turn in these lessons.

Hon. Oscar Craig, of New York.— After the masterly presentation by the chairman of the committee and the illustrations given by Miss Putnam, little more need be said. I will only refer to another illustration of these truths in the State Industrial School at Rochester. Industrial arts were introduced there by Mr. Letchworth, when he was president of the New York State Board of Charities. The work is a great success there. Mr. Charlton's paper suggests that the world moves. In every one of the institutions to which he refers, industrial training is a means of reformation, and also of prevention, as it looks to self-support after the boy has left the institution. Now there is one point that I wish to present, which, though not contained in the paper, is properly suggested by it. Let me refer first to the paper which preceded it, where the point is made that the inmates of these institutions who have been rightfully committed, and who are fit subjects for the institution, should not be interfered with by the courts. Right here let me suggest that it is not every inmate in these institutions that is a fit subject for them. I undertake to say, as we have verified by experience and observation in New York, that there are many children unjustly committed to these institutions by inferior magistrates. Many parents prostitute themselves by charging their children falsely or frivolously, to get them committed to these institutions in order that they may be supported and educated at the cost of the State. That is to pauperize the parents as well as to demoralize the children. This masterly paper by the chairman of the committee, showing that industrial arts and industrial training and education have reached a high degree of perfection in these reformatories, suggests a correlative idea, that they present temptations to unworthy

parents. I would not say one word to take away the impression of the importance of this industrial training. But, in connection with that truth, we ought not to forget the fact that parents are thus tempted to make false or frivolous charges against their children. What a wrong to the children and to the communities! Last year the managers of the State Industrial School at Rochester recommended to the legislature of New York, as a remedy for this incidental evil, that there should be charged back to the parents or guardians, in all cases where they are able to respond, a part of the expense of the support of their respective wards in these reformatories. The minimum thus to be charged was $1.50 per week. The proposition receives my approval, and, as I know, the indorsement also of Mr. Letchworth, who has given much thought to the subject; and it is in accordance with prior recommendations by the standing committee on reformatories of the New York State Board of Charities.

Dr. Byers.— I agree with Mr. Craig. I wish he had said, as nearly as his judgment would indicate, whether he does not think that from twenty-five to forty per cent. of the boys sent to these reformatories are positively innocent.

Mr. Craig.— Fully that, I believe.

Dr. Byers.— The crime of the age is the treatment of its children by the community. The community is a criminal. A few weeks ago, a little girl was brought to us by a lady. I said to her: "Why do you bring that child here? She is not capable of any crime. Why do you put a criminal record on her childish life that will be stamped there for all the years to come?" But the lady said she was a very bad child. "Well," I said, "were not you a bad child? Most children are." "But," said she, "she tells stories." "Ugh," said I, "did not you?" "But she takes things," the lady persisted. "Well," I continued, "did not you?" If there are any ladies or gentlemen here who did not do such things in their childhood, I would be willing to let them hold up their hands. But, without going through that process, I would undertake to say that they would be in a hopeless minority.

Charles W. Birtwell, of Massachusetts, said that he did not understand how people expected to reform boys without the help of women. He had visited institutions where there were no women among the teachers, and no women on the boards of management. He thought that it was a great mistake, and would give boys a distorted opinion of womanhood.

Dr. Byers agreed with Mr. Birtwell that, to attain the best success, a woman was "a good thing to have in the house."

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Friday morning, May 16.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30 A.M., Oscar C. McCulloch in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. T. P. Haley, of Missouri.

A report from Indiana was presented by L. A. Barnet.

The order for the day, "Immigration," was taken up, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt in charge of the committee.

Dr. Hoyt read a brief report prepared by the chairman of the committee, Hon. J. H. Van Antwerp, of Albany (page 279).

A paper by S. C. Wrightington, of Massachusetts, was read in his absence by the Secretary (page 281).

DISCUSSION ON IMMIGRATION.

Charles D. Kellogg, of New York, wished to acquaint the Conference with the action of the Charity Organization Society of New York City in the matter of immigration, which body had appointed, some months since, a committee to consider the subject. Upon that committee were the Hon. Nicholas Fish, formerly U.S. minister to Switzerland, and the first official, in the speaker's recollection, to take positive and successful action to restrict the exportation of the insane and other unsuitable persons to this country; Richmond Mayo Smith, Professor of Political Economy in Columbia College, who has given much study to this subject and has recently published a valuable book upon it; Hon. J. Hampden Robb, a Commissioner of Parks in New York City and late State Senator; Howard Mansfield, Esq., a lawyer of high standing; and Alfred Bishop Mason, Esq., of much experience, as a railroad manager, in transporting immigrants.

The report recognized the recent decrease in immigration, which it ascribed to the agitation in this country, and called attention to the evidence which had recently accumulated in regard to the evils attendant upon indiscriminate immigration. It discussed the social effects of these evils in increasing the burden of pauperism, vice, and crime, but did not deal with the political and economic effects. The evidence was of two kinds: —

(1) The direct evidence of the influx of paupers, criminals, and persons unable to support themselves, as brought out in various governmental reports; and (2) the statistics of the abnormal proportion of persons of foreign birth who are inmates of our almshouses, asylums, and charitable institutions.

I. Under the first head, it found conclusive evidence that there is an artificial stimulus given to the emigration of undesirable persons from Europe to this country. This is of three kinds: —

(*a*) By governmental authority.

(*b*) By charitable societies.

(*c*) By steamship companies and their agents.

II. Under the second head, statistics from official sources were quoted to prove the great influx of foreign feeble-minded, crippled, and diseased persons.

The committee would not limit a healthy, sound immigration, but would eliminate the undesirable elements, and would suggest that the

remedy lies in a more careful control of immigration in the following directions: —

1. Strict enforcement of the law of 1882, prohibiting the landing of "any convict, lunatic, idiot, pauper, or person unable to take care of himself or herself without becoming a public charge"; an enlarged and improved system of inspection; and all under federal control.

2. The steamship companies should be held strictly responsible for the character of their passengers, and compelled to carry back persons forbidden by law to land.

3. Diplomatic understanding with the governments of Europe that the shipping of paupers and criminals to this country will be looked upon as an unfriendly act.

4. An effective system of consular certificates as to whether the person has ever been a criminal or in receipt of poor relief, and is capable of supporting himself.

Mr. Cadwalader Biddle, of Pennsylvania.— The paper just read, said to have been by Mr. Van Antwerp, of New York, states that the United States government has adopted a new plan, for the city of New York, to carry into effect the immigration laws; that one United States commissioner takes the place of the State Board, previously acting, and that it is hoped that this change will result in benefiting the country. He then further states that it is believed that a similar appointment would act equally well in both Boston and Philadelphia. I listened to this paper with surprise that this Conference of Charities and Correction, the special friends of Boards of Charities (which Boards, you may say, practically established this Conference), should have had presented to it a paper containing this recommendation. It was at the suggestion of the Conference of Charities and Correction that Congress inserted in the act for the supervision of immigration, then pending, a clause authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury, on the recommendation of the Executive of any State in which there was a Board of Public Charities, to appoint that Board Commissioners of Immigration for the port or ports within said State. It was owing to this enactment that the Secretary of the Treasury appointed the State Boards of Charities in the States of Pennsylvania and Massachusetts to act as Commissioners of Immigration.

Mr. Kellogg, in the report just read by him, says that by having federal agents the Immigration Act could be more satisfactorily administered than it now is. I do not understand this remark. The State Boards of Charities of Pennsylvania and Massachusetts *do* act as federal agents, just as much so as any individual of the State for which he was appointed would be. The Secretary of the United States Treasury communicates with every Board acting as Commissioners, advising with and directing them in their endeavor to carry into effect the laws. They act simply as instruments to execute the federal will. Does any one believe that a United States political appointee could be more interested than the great State Boards of Charities in enforcing these laws? Does any one in this Conference

believe that, if the State Board of Charities of New York, with such men as Mr. Letchworth, Mr. Craig, Mr. Stewart, and Dr. Hoyt as members, had acted as Commissioners of Immigration, there would have been any cause of complaint that the federal laws had not been thoroughly enforced? It was just because the State Board of Charities of New York had *not* been so appointed that this trouble arose.

Why, then, should this Conference be asked to sanction a movement looking to the displacement of the State Boards in the States of Massachusetts and Pennsylvania? We have just listened to an admirable paper by Mr. Wrightington, in which he shows clearly how well the law has been enforced by the State Board of Charities in the State of Massachusetts. I am here, on behalf of the State Board of Charities of Pennsylvania, to say that any statement that a private individual, if appointed, could more efficiently carry into effect the purposes of the Immigration Act, is uncalled for, and made in ignorance of the facts. Our administration in Pennsylvania has uniformly met with the approbation of the authorities at Washington. We can show a record as good as that reported by Mr. Wrightington from Massachusetts. We not only examine the passengers who land, but, in the event of their falling into distress within a year after landing, we look after and care for them, under the provisions of this act. Some member of our Board attends upon the arrival of every steamer at the port of Philadelphia. Our president, Mr. Dickinson, is seldom absent on such occasions, and gives personal supervision to every act done in behalf of the immigrants. No individual could do more efficient service than is now done by the State Board of Charities of Pennsylvania. Why such a report as this should have been made, written, evidently, by one entirely ignorant of the whole subject, is to me utterly unaccountable.

The next order for the morning, the report of the Charity Organization Association, was taken up, N. S. Rosenau, of Buffalo, N.Y., chairman. The report of the committee was read by Mr. Rosenau (page 25).

DISCUSSION ON CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

John Glenn, of Baltimore.— I have very little to add to what has been given in this able report. But there are one or two things which I might mention. We have made great progress here in our dealings with the police. When the reorganization of our society took place, — Mr. Rosenau has been kind enough to attribute its success to myself, but I have been wonderfully fortunate in the men and women of the largest hearts and largest intellects who fell into line almost immediately,— the Johns Hopkins University, with Mr. Gilman and the professors, came to the front, and in a short time a relation was created between the University and our work which obliges us to do the best

we can. When we commenced, the amount spent by the police in taking up any man or woman that came along, and relieving without investigation, was very large. That amount has been reduced almost to a minimum. Then there were many permits for selling pencils, fruits, etc. Very few were able to make a good living. There were something like 1,400 of these permits. These have been reduced to 250 or 300; and the mayor has come to the conclusion that the best thing the city can do is to deliver no one a permit to sell upon the street until the case has been investigated and indorsed by the Charity Organization Society. With regard to the travelling tramps,— for the tramp is by nature a traveller, and a very fortunate and happy traveller,— all that he has to do is to go to a town and put on a hard-looking appearance and tell a pitiful story, and the public will at once provide him with a ticket to go anywhere. One tramp was sent clear to Denver, and, when he got there, became tired of Denver and was sent back here. We had a case the other day of a young man able to take care of himself. He is blind, but has been educated in our institution. He made up his mind that he would like to go out West. He went, and I happened to meet him in San Francisco. He told me that he thought that he would like to come back to Baltimore. He said that he had been there two months and had not made a success. I advised him to wait a little longer. He was a piano-tuner. After two or three weeks he brought up here, and asked if we could not take care of him. Through the efforts of the Charity Organization Society, people are beginning to understand that tramps have no more right to travel at public expense than other individuals.

We are accused of not being a religious organization, because we do not come out as sectarians or as purely church societies. I heard a sermon preached in which it was stated that philanthropy might exist entirely apart from religion. It is impossible for any man or woman to start with the love of his neighbor in his heart, to determine to devote his time and his money to the elevation of his fellowmen, without his being religious. The chief motto that we have in the Charity Organization Society is, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." If you can read your Bible, you will see that it says, How can you love your God, whom you have not seen, unless you first love your neighbor, whom you have seen? showing that it is intended that our poor humanity should rise from the lower commandment to the higher. The churches are apt to look at everything from the higher commandment, from the theological standpoint. Where professions of faith have nothing to do, but where you come in as the good Samaritan, without asking whether the man is Jew or Gentile, and take care of him simply because he is a man, that to me is true religion; and I do not believe that any person in the world who attempts to carry out this principle can help being a religious man or woman.

There is a simple matter which is overlooked in dealing with the tramp question. Our Declaration of Independence says that men

are free and equal. It has been stated that that is not so. In some respects it is not. We are not free, and we are not equal in intelligence or moral development. But there is one thing in which we are free and equal, and that is in our civil rights and obligations. The trouble in dealing with the tramp is that society has taught the tramp his rights, but not his obligation to society. That is what we have got to do. We have got to take the tramp and put him under educational influences instead of letting him go freely over the land. He is our fellow-citizen. That is appreciated at the elections, and sometimes we vote him two or three times. But when it comes to his obligations to society and government, his obligation to support government, we do not insist on that obligation. We are bound to call on the tramp to meet his obligations to society, and that is one duty the Charity Organization Society has to do.

Mr. William Grey (now the Earl of Stamford), of the Charity Organization Society, London, England, was invited to speak.

Mr. GREY.— I am ashamed to say that for nearly three years I have not been working in connection with our London society; but I am in hopes, on my return, to resume active work. With regard to the question of statistics, which has just been mentioned, I suppose I need hardly refer to Charles Booth's "Life and Labors in the East End of London." His work, I suppose, is the most valuable contribution to social science that has been made for many a long year. He spent considerable time living in East London with the working classes of people, and collected statistics with great care from numerous agencies in the East End. He then embodied the results of his labor in a portly volume, to which he has appended a colored map of the East End of London, indicating the various grades in the social scale which are occupied by the residents in the several streets. The appearance of the map is exceedingly cheering. It proves that the lowest criminal class is far less numerous than it had been imagined, and that the respectable bodies of self-respecting, self-supporting people are far larger than we had thought. His conclusions are drawn with great care and modesty. His work is still progressing. He is taking South London in hand, and will publish a book of similar character about that, and then will deal with the west of London. With regard to the Charity Organization Society, I attended their annual meeting this year; and, when I came to the door of the hall where the meeting was to be held, I was struck with the contrast to that of a few years ago. At that time, I came up to the door and found a wild scene of confusion. The officials had hastily erected a barricade, and several were in fighting attitude behind it. "Sandwich men" were wandering up and down the street with placards announcing "the exposure of the greatest fraud in Christendom." In the meeting, serious interruptions were constantly taking place. This year everything was perfectly quiet and respectable. I found one of my friends at the door who had had some experience in

the Western States of America, and was perfectly prepared to turn up his sleeves and go in for some of those unwelcome visitors; but there was no occasion for this. I said: This will not do at all. I must denounce this as a gross fraud. The Charity Organization Society must be forgetting itself and its principles to become steady-going. The meeting itself was widely noticed in the newspapers. That is a cheering fact, which shows that the principles are securing a much wider acceptance in England, and that the foolish opposition to them is coming to an end. Another satisfactory point is the cordial co-operation of the clergy and the various relief agencies. The Society for the Relief of Distress is a relief-giving society which has always worked in more or less co-operation with the Charity Organization Society, but which for a long time suffered from inadequate public support. But of late the contributions to that society have, I believe, become much larger; and it is to be hoped that, as time goes on, the function of giving relief may be left to it. An attempt has been made in the East End of London, in one of the district committees, to revisit cases. In London we have unwillingly been obliged to drop many cases after dealing with them, until they are again called to our notice. In the Stepney District of East London, last summer, all the cases which had been relieved were revisited after the interval of three months, and the results of that inquiry were placed upon record. Some valuable conclusions were arrived at. It is hoped that this may be done in other district committees. I am afraid we are very far, as yet, from having arrived at the level of the Associated Charities of Boston in keeping up connection with the cases that we have visited. In that respect, all we can do is to look with great respect on the American example, and do the best we can to imitate it. We have, of course, a very large leisure class in London, and we feel that there are many who ought to be qualified to act as friendly visitors; and we trust that, as time goes on, their numbers will increase, and that those persons of wealth and leisure will show more interest in the fortunes of their poorer brethren.

Mrs. Jacobs, of Colorado.— You have heard about the statistics and the promise of this work, but you have not heard how much of the foundation of it rests upon the women of the world. Without the women of the cities your charities would fall short. It is upon friendly visiting that the whole basis of true charity rests. And friendly visiting with us is done only by the women. Men are not good investigators: they are too easily blinded. It takes a woman with a woman's heart to go to a poor and stricken soul, and find out what she needs, especially if it is a woman; and, if it is a man, he will open his heart to a true-hearted woman, and she can lead him where she will. You have been talking about the tramp question. There is one way that this question can be met, but it takes money. That is, to establish a wood-yard. We have had one in Denver for three years. Six hundred and forty men were received there last year. What we want is a good building, where these men can have a bath and have their

clothes fumigated, and go into a good, clean, wholesome bed, and be made to feel like a human being. We also want to teach cleanliness in the homes of the poor. In order to give this instruction, it takes a woman, best of all one who has been a mother, and who knows something about the value and love of the home. We must train our own little boys and girls to know what a home is, so that, when they come to be fathers and mothers, they will know how to make and value home.

Mr. ROSENAU.— At a meeting held not many years ago, a lady, who is as well up in charity organization as anybody that I know, made the assertion that we do not have enough male visitors. Miss Zilpha D. Smith was responsible for that remark. I will ask her if she is still of that opinion.

Miss ZILPHA D. SMITH.— I could not sit still after hearing Mrs. Jacobs without bearing testimony to the good work done by men as friendly visitors in Boston, even in such emergencies as she describes. In London, also, they are most valued workers. Men are so busy that they will rarely give time for visiting; but, when they do, their service is as energetic and fruitful as that of women.

One society has been quoted this morning with many provident schemes. It is a society directed by women, and every one of these schemes is for women or girls. Would the work have been so one-sided if men, also, had had a voice in the management? I think not. The ideal way is for men and women to work together.

Another speaker referred to Mr. Booth's useful book. Its chief value to charity workers is that it helps us to see the lives of the very poor in their true perspective, set in the midst of other lives a little more fortunate than their own. To know the poor only when they are in distress is not to know them fully; and friendly visiting continued after the family is fairly on its feet helps us to see them in their relation to the whole community, just as Mr. Booth's book does.

We of the Charity Organization Societies come to the National Conference as few other members do, and owe it a peculiar debt. Most of you deal with poor persons or defective or delinquent persons as *individuals*, removed from family relations. We deal with the *family* as a whole, usually working to keep it together, but sometimes helping to break it up into units, and to place them in your care. Not a subject is treated in the Conference that it is not necessary we should know about some time in the course of the year's work, in order to use wisely the special agencies about us. We cannot afford to miss a single session of the whole week. We are general practitioners; and we have much to learn from you, the specialists.

The Charity Organization Societies are largely represented here by their paid workers; and I fear that some may get the impression that at home they do most of the work, and that it can easily be left to two or three persons. Nothing could be a greater mistake. If there were ever a movement that required the help of each person in

the community,— men and women, rich and poor,— it is a society for the organization of charity. I believe the chief danger before our societies is that, when the first leaders go, they may not leave others adequately trained to guide the work. I hope in our sectional meetings we shall learn from one another what methods have been employed for bringing new persons into knowledge of the work and into the management, so that the societies shall live a vigorous life for more than the generation that started them.

Dr. Byers.— The subject of statistics is regarded as lying at the foundation of all the work we are trying to do. This Conference might as well now as at a later period know that no essential progress can be made until we get absolute figures upon which these reforms must be based. The trouble is to get the statistics. Possibly, we have been at fault in asking too many questions and in asking questions not entirely intelligible to our friends. As an illustration, coming from a physician: those of you familiar with the admissions of persons to insane asylums know that there is a question like this, Is the person homicidal or suicidal? A doctor in filling up the certificate said: "Homicidal? No. Suicidal? Slightly so toward others." Until we can get something more intelligible than that, of course there can be no substantial basis for work. We must by all possible means institute the best, wisest, most practical measures for securing complete and accurate statistics in relation to all the classes whose interests we are seeking to promote.

James Smith, of Indiana.— As indicating the public opinion in the work of charity organization, I may briefly state what we have accomplished in Indiana. In the winter of 1888–89, we had 8,741 applications for relief, and secured relief for 5,202, numbering about 18,000 individuals. It was decided that in 3,539 cases relief was not best. Relief was secured through various agencies in the circle of charities. Our visitors have induced many to become self-supporting and self-respecting. In the month of November we had a meeting of the business men of the city, and provision was made for a general secretary, relieving Mr. McCulloch of the clerical details which he had undertaken for so many years.

Robert Treat Paine, of Boston.— With great pleasure we who are working in the cause of organized charity hold our meeting to-day. We think it the most important day of the session, because we deal not with any special fraction, but with the whole problem, the relation of the well-to-do with the poor. One thought occurs to me for emphasis, after hearing the interesting report of our chairman that there are no statistics of any value as to the causes of distress. Has not the time come when this Conference, and the societies working in charity organizations of every country, shall devote their attention to the subject of the *causes* which produce the mass of distress which we see and hear so much of at this and every Conference? We have made a little progress, but not much, in Boston. I think the time has come to devote our attention to the study and observance of the

causes of this great growing river of misery, destitution, and degradation. Will you agree with me when I say that, in the judgment of some of us, the causes are four, and that they are all remediable? First, the indiscriminate giving of alms. That deals with the negative side of the problem, not to me the most interesting. We have heard a great deal of impostures and frauds and tramps, and all the evils connected with them. These are all on the negative side of the problem. It is the positive and helpful side of charities that appeals to me and to our Boston workers. The second cause is the rum-shop. All the strength that we can bring into operation must be invoked to remove that. The third is the filthy home. We have places in Boston which have got to be removed by the strong hand of the law. Fourth, neglected child-life. If you look through the programme of this Conference, you will see many interesting subjects for discussion. There will be discussions on juvenile offenders, how to care for the boy after he is ruined; but the real problem is how to prevent the boy from getting into that position. We had a resolution adopted yesterday in favor of having the fourth Sunday in October devoted to the prison question. Are we not entitled to have some Sunday in some other month devoted to the question of the relation of the rich and the well-to-do to those who are poor and in distress? We want to summon to our aid the clergy of the civilized world. We also want the aid of every young man who graduates from the Johns Hopkins University and from Harvard. We have already the co-operation of many of the young women of Wellesley. We ask that all of our colleges should feel that the question which is at least as important as any other is the study of the welfare of mankind. If we can enlighten and arouse the public, we hope that we shall get the interest and support of the whole country.

Rev. L. G. Powers, of Minnesota.—I want to emphasize one thought, and that is that more thought should be given to the children of those who have become paupers and criminals. A few weeks ago we had in Minneapolis a conference where we listened to an address by the superintendent of the Reformatory at St. Cloud. In that institution, as in many that have been reported here, there is provision made for the boys of unfortunate or criminal parents, or who have been unfortunate or criminal themselves, to receive the best possible education that will fit them for life. The question presents itself, Shall it be necessary for a boy in this broad land to become criminal, to be convicted by the courts, before he shall have such an education? I believe that we should give to all boys, the boys of the rich as well as the boys of the poor, the same practical education that we give to unfortunate and criminal boys in our reform schools. This industrial training is the great preservative in keeping these reforming boys in the right line. We must carry this industrial training, such as we have in Minneapolis, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and some other places, into all of our schools. I hope there will also be an agitation for trade schools, so that our boys shall have an opportunity to fit themselves to earn their own living.

Mrs. L. S. Houghton, of New York, said that, as reference had been made to having a children's Sunday she would suggest that, as the first Sunday in June is already Children's Sunday in New York and Brooklyn, it would be easy to adapt the teachings of the pulpit that day to the subjects which it would be advisable to consider with reference to children.

Mr. Rosenau called attention to the recent refusal of the city council of New Haven to accept a gift of $150,000 for the benefit of the poor, on the ground that it would be a fund which might lead to pauperization and corruption. He thought that there was probably not a parallel instance in the history of the world. He thought the New Haven Charity Organization Society should be congratulated that it has succeeded in educating politicians and office-holders in the work of preventing pauperism.

A letter from Bishop Gillespie, expressing his regret to attend the Conference, was read.

A paper on "Statistics: Their Value in Charity Organization Work," was read by Charles D. Kellogg, of New York (page 31).

The Chair announced that Dr. J. W. Walk would be chairman of the Committee on Time and Place, and Mr. Alexander Johnson chairman of the Committee on Credentials.

Adjourned at 12.25 P.M.

FIFTH SESSION.

Friday night, May 16.

The Conference met at 8 P.M., the President in the chair.

The order for the evening was the "Work of Charity Organization in Connection with Emergencies," and it was under the direction of Mr. N. S. Rosenau, chairman.

Mr. ROSENAU.— At previous Conferences, the Charity Organization Section has devoted its share of time to an explanation of the principles of its work. The committee in charge of the subject this year feel that the principles of the work have been sufficiently presented to the public as a general matter; and it is now time to show exactly how Charity Organization, or the Association of Charities, is beneficial. It is fortunate for us, though unfortunate for the country, that during the past year a practical demonstration of the value of the organization of charities has been presented to the United States. In June came the awful disaster at Johnstown, Penn. Later came the terrible fire at Lynn, Mass. Within a recent time a cyclone has visited Louisville, Ky. In the first instance there was no organization

of charities, no education of the public mind in the principles of scientific charity. In the two latter instances there were societies existing whose avowed objects were the organization of charities, and the public mind in each place had been prepared by years of instruction to meet emergencies. The relief work at Johnstown will be presented to you in a brief paper, by Mr. L. S. Emery, of Washington, D.C., who was sent to the scene of the disaster with the supplies that first went from the capital of the United States.

A paper on "The Johnstown Flood: A Lesson in the Value of Charity Organization," was then read by Mr. Emery (page 43).

Rev. C. N. Field, chaplain of the Iron Cross of Philadelphia, was invited to speak on the Johnstown calamity. He spoke as follows: —

ADDRESS OF REV. C. N. FIELD, OF ST. CLEMENT'S, PHILADELPHIA.

The greatness of the calamity at Johnstown can hardly be exaggerated; but it was met by a charity from all parts of this country, and from other parts of the world, which may be said to have exceeded the wants occasioned by the disaster. Cities and societies tried to rival one another in sending men, money, and material for the relief of the sufferers. Even the prisoners within the prison walls of at least one penitentiary in Philadelphia worked beyond their hours to send a contribution to the fund. It seemed almost as if a millennium of charity had arrived.

But now it is impossible in few or many words to describe the real state of Johnstown when the first relief parties entered the town. The condition of the people was worse than the condition of the place. The men were dazed, and unable to answer the simplest questions. Their teeth chattered as they sat on the ground in their misery. On the other hand there were multitudes of strangers who had come out of vulgar curiosity; and there were photographers, reporters, clergymen, and others who had come to help. There was the greatest possible confusion, a chaos, mental and material,— plenty of charity, but no organization,— food and clothing being thrown out of windows to the hungry crowds, and the strongest getting them. There were houses full to overflowing of wounded. I visited one house in which two young ladies and their niece were nursing seventy-two wounded sufferers; and in that house, indeed, there was organized charity, or they could not have done what they did. While I was waiting, a poor lady came in and asked for food, saying that she had been waiting for two hours in the line, which stretched a quarter of a mile from the relief station to the morgues, but that each time as she approached to get food she was pushed out of the line by some stronger person, and obliged again to retire. One man got supplies of coffee from the relief stores, and sold it at forty cents a cup. But

in spite of the confusion there was not so much imposition and demoralization as might have been expected. The inhabitants who survived and had houses remaining kept "open house." Money was not asked. It was difficult in those first weeks to spend it. I offered money for a coffee-pot for a poor family, but could not find one for sale. I have never seen the ideal state in which money should be of no value, as described in a recent popular work of fiction, "Looking Backward," so nearly realized as in Johnstown. Every one gave, and every one received from the general supply. I must not omit one of the first acts of organized charity. A large number of undertakers, I think seventy-three, arrived as soon as possible, and did their work nobly, without a chance of being paid. It was the dead more than the living who first needed attention at Johnstown. It was for the purposes of giving them Christian burial that I had gone up to the place, and to help the living, if there were any. This was the first work to which I was called; and, as I returned, I met another organized body,— *the soldiers*. We wished heartily that they had been able to come earlier; but you know that by some mistake those on their way to the protection of the place were remanded. When they came, they greatly assisted the work of charity. They helped to bring order in a general time of disorder. They stood bravely at their posts when the stench was so bad that they were obliged to light fires in front of them. The organization of the soldiers, and the good discipline maintained in the camp, were a help to us all.

A name has been already mentioned here which was respected by all the soldiers, the name of Miss Clara Barton, head of the Red Cross Society in this country. This was the organization of organizations in Johnstown for charitable work. It is too well known for me to say much about it, but I do not think that the American public has yet given the fair amount of attention to the Red Cross Society as a charitable organization. When the International Treaty of the Red Cross was signed in this country at Washington, the only notice it received was a statement of three lines in an evening paper in Washington; while bonfires, to celebrate the admission of the United States into the treaty, were being lighted in all the largest cities of Europe.

The work of the Red Cross Society at Johnstown was twofold: (1) relieving the suffering and wounded; (2) distributing money and goods to the destitute. This was the work of other organizations also, such as the Masons, the Odd Fellows, and the Grand Army of the Republic. And in each case the value of organization in charitable work was seen; but it would have been better if there had been more organization among the organizations themselves,— a general society to which all could have reported, in order to save much time taken up in inquiry and much duplication of work.

I have been asked to criticise the relief work at Johnstown. This is always a disagreeable thing to do. But my position was peculiar. One paper described me as "a spook," flitting about from place to

place. It was not till I reached home that I found in a dictionary that a spook was "a spiritual person," and therefore an accurate description. Now, from the spook's point of view, I should say that there was great unwisdom in allowing the work to be done by contract. There was a very unwise attempt to cut down wages. $5 a day for the work which men were called to do would not have been too much. Good wages and good food should have been given, but bad food and low wages were given for the most hard and loathsome kind of work. It is not surprising that there was strife, and that there soon came a strike. Even a spook could not have endured it. An army of soldiers might have been employed, and it is perhaps due to the soldiers that the work proceeded so quickly. General Hastings did his utmost to push it forward. He allowed no liquor to be sold. He obtained tents and wooden houses in the shortest time, and he did everything to assist the Red Cross Society in its charitable work.

The wants of the people grew in regular order of progression: (1) they wanted something to eat; (2) something to put on; (3) a house to live in; (4) furniture to put in the house; (5) things to work with,— sewing-machines, etc.; (6) books. This is the order, as far as I can remember, in which the requests came; and, as the things were supplied, the people made good use of them. The people of Johnstown soon learned to help themselves when the first terrible feelings of horror had passed. Miss Barton tried to get the ladies to form a self-help association, and many of them helped the Red Cross in relief work. I shall end by giving you one instance of the genius of some of the people of Johnstown in making use of the charity of others. I saw, one day, smoke rising in the distance, and on inquiry found that it came from some dye-works, which had just been started by an enterprising sufferer. He knew that the people would not wish to appear in the bright colors of the clothing sent by charitable people, and therefore had begun by this means to show sympathy with the mourners and recover his own fortunes. I quote this man as an instance of a great many people who, in spite of the misfortune which befell them in Johnstown, mean to recover their fortunes in the future.

A paper on "The Utility of Organized Charity in an Emergency" was read by Miss Hannah M. Todd, of Lynn, Mass. (page 36).

A paper on "The Great Tornado" was read by Mr. W. T. Rolph, of Louisville, Ky. (page 49).

Mr. Rosenau.— If I were to be asked what proper names were fitly represented by the expression "sweetness and light," I should answer Florence Nightingale and Clara Barton. Miss Barton's name is not on our programme, unfortunately; but it is always in the heart of every American, and that alone would make her a welcome person

on any platform. I will ask Miss Barton if she will not tell us of the work of the Red Cross in Johnstown.

ABSTRACT OF MISS BARTON'S REMARKS.

Miss BARTON.— I cannot in this brief time take up the story of Johnstown, and tell you what needed to be done when we went there, and what, thank God, it is to-day. Only a few days ago it was my pleasure to stop at that town, as I was passing through, and spend a few days among its people. They have proved themselves worthy of all we did for them. They are a grand people, coming up to be a grand little city. They have got out of the horror and daze, and are coming up into new life; and there is not a better portrayal of what their feelings are than the fact just stated by Mr. Rolph, that Johnstown was one of the first to send its little sum of $500 to Louisville in the time of her disaster. They told me this with pride and pleasure, when I met them the other day. They were glad to do even that.

In regard to the work of organized charity, at the moment when Johnstown was struck I scarcely know what it could have done. It has been suggested that, if there had been a good Charity Organization Society, it would have been well. So it would, if the society had been alive. But, if there had been fifty Associated Charities, they would all have lain in the bottom of the river. They hardly would have been stronger than iron safes; and, when I entered Johnstown, there was not a safe in the whole city. It was more than four weeks before one could cash a check. It was no use to send money there for some time. It was life, existence, bread, something to wear, that they cared for. It has been said that things were thrown recklessly out of the windows in the first days. What did you people want, when you sent your supplies there? You wanted things thrown among the people. It was well for them they could pick up bread in the streets. I was glad to see that. I knew that time would regulate this shortly; and it did. But for the first few days there was none too much, it was none too plenty. These things right themselves.

Father Field said a timely thing when he gave such high credit to General Hastings. When we saw General Hastings come with the military forces, we knew that meant safety. There was no strength less than that that could grapple with that town. The plunderers were there by hundreds and thousands. There was demoralization everywhere. Nothing short of the strong arm of the military could have held down these dastards and the terrors that might have followed. Thank God that there was an arm strong enough! General Hastings was a man equal to cope with the troubles there. The military force was not kept there one day after it was not needed. Of those who came to help there cannot be too much said. Great praise has been given to me personally. I thank you, and I thank the country; but I beg you will all remember the good help I had. There were

at my command fifty persons every day, morning, noon, and night, who worked steadily, faithfully, bravely, and conscientiously. They were cared for at our own tables, where we served one hundred meals a day through five months to our workers. One thinks that it is something to feed and take care of one hundred and fifty people for one meal; but there were five months of one hundred and fifty people in our care, and that did not embrace the hospital department, which was by itself. You people outside wondered how it was there were no houses put up within the first six weeks or the first month. The papers kept saying: "What are they doing? They have not put up houses yet. Why do not they get the people into houses?" But where would you have put the houses? There was nowhere to set a house in Johnstown. The whole place for miles was covered with the houses that had been upset and washed down. The first house that we put up, the ground had to be cleared of rubbish for a depth of twenty feet. We got the house up then in four days,— a house one hundred feet long by fifty feet wide. Then we went on to put up other houses as fast as we could get the places ready for them; and those houses are still there, and the people have been comfortable in them this past winter.

Finally, there came something like a drawing to the close of that work, and the charities that had been sent in were to be distributed. It was then five months since the first day that we went in. I had never left. I had never seen my own home. I had never been away from these scenes. No summer came to us. We saw only death and desolation. Finally, when the day came that the distribution was made, and the people began to be comfortable, we felt that, with the blessing of Heaven, we might leave and go home. The other day I was asked if I could furnish some report about this work. I have not that report with me, but I can remember some of the facts. The first month we supplied food and clothing. The next month we spent in getting up the houses, the third in getting something into the houses for the people to use. We put up five large buildings, averaging from one to two hundred feet in length. These were filled as warehouses. We filled them by the carload, and emptied them once in two weeks. We had everything that was necessary for a family to go to housekeeping. We furnished thirty-four hundred families with furniture in that time. We cared for more than thirty thousand persons.

It is an injustice to myself and to our work to keep you at this hour. I am only glad that Father Field has told you what he did; and, if another emergency like Johnstown should ever confront me, I pray St. Andrew's of Philadelphia to give me Father Field.

Mr. Rosenau.— For the first time in my recollection of this Conference the workingman is to stand before you, to give you his views. A paper on "Charity from the Standpoint of the Knights of Labor" will now be read by James G. Schonfarber, of Baltimore, Md. (page 58).

Dr. Byers.— There will be an opportunity to discuss these papers later. The writer of this last paper expresses some surprise that the National Conference of Charities and Correction had not taken into co-operation with itself the laboring classes of this country. Why, we never thought that the laboring classes needed to be coddled. We never thought that the honest, hard-working, toiling citizens, possessing equal rights with the best of us, needed any particular expression of sympathy. The noblest men on God's earth are those who toil with willing hands to earn their bread. So far as sympathy may be demanded by these classes or these conditions, that sympathy will come from the National Conference spontaneously; but above it and beyond it there will come and abide with us the sense of justice to these classes that the brother has demanded.

The names of the Committee on Time and Place were read by the Secretary as follows: —

Committee on Time and Place: chairman, Dr. James W. Walk, of Pennsylvania; Joseph Spear, Jr., of California; Thomas A. Uzzell, of Colorado; Mrs. R. M. John, of Illinois; Rev. O. C. McCulloch, of Indiana; W. T. Rolph, of Kentucky; Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens, of Maine; Colonel Henry Stone, of Massachusetts; Levi L. Barbour, of Michigan; C. L. Snyder, of Michigan; N. S. Rosenau, of New York; J. P. Sawyer, of North Carolina; Miss Eliza Brown, of Virginia; Dr. Lyman J. Barrows, of Wisconsin; Judge Arthur McArthur, of Washington, D.C.

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Saturday morning, May 17.

The Conference met at 9.30 A.M., the President in the chair. Reports from States were called for.

Rev. W. C. Wilson, of North Carolina, was invited to give a brief report from that State.

Mr. Wilson.— I regret the absence of our Southern gentlemen who have been accustomed to attend this Conference. I am sorry that my State and my section are behind in this matter. I had heard about this assembly before coming here, but I had thought little about it. However, the governor sent me; and I thank God that I came. There should be some system of industrial schools organized in our State. I have become so much interested in this matter that I am afraid I shall be called a crank when I go home, but I will

try to turn in the right direction. Though we are behind in some directions, we have asylums for the insane including a beautiful place for our brethren in black. If a darky gets insane, he gets into a place with beautiful surroundings. We have four orphanages in North Carolina, supported in part by religious denominations and in part by State aid. The Baptists do a great deal for orphans. The Methodists have not got started very far yet.

A DELEGATE.— Do you farm out your prisoners now?

Mr. WILSON.— We do.

A DELEGATE.— We would like to help break up that system.

Mr. WILSON.— We should be glad to have help.

J. W. WILLIS, St. Paul.— We have given special attention this year to the State Reformatory, lately established for the purpose of giving punishment and reform to those convicted of first offences. It has been visited almost weekly by our Board. We anticipate the best result from this work. Our State School for Dependent Children, which is at Owatonna, cares for one hundred and twenty children. We have children on hand all the time, although we are constantly transferring them to good homes, which we have been very successful in finding for them. In our insane asylums, we have adopted some reforms. At St. Peter, we have nearly one thousand insane. The employees have been put on the basis of a civil service examination. The result is in the interest of efficiency. In addition to these two splendid insane asylums, we are building a third, which will be constructed on the cottage plan. It will be under the control of the homœopathic school of medicine. The others are under the old school. The last legislature made provision for female physicians in all the insane asylums.

The Committee on Time and Place reported, through the chairman, Dr. Walk, of Philadelphia, that the recommendation of the committee was to hold the Conference of 1891 in the month of May, in the city of Indianapolis, Ind.

Dr. Hoyt, of New York, thought that July would be a better month.

Mr. Wilson, of North Carolina, moved, as a substitute, that the next session of the Conference should be held in Nashville, Tenn. He thought the place to be selected was not where the delegates could have a good time, but where they could do the most good. He thought both the legislatures and the people of the South needed to be aroused, and that nothing could be more effective for this purpose than a visit of the Conference of Charities and Correction.

Miss Putnam, of Boston, seconded Mr. Wilson's motion.

The Secretary read the following telegram: —

NASHVILLE, TENN., May 16.

To the National Conference of Charities and Correction:

The Central Women's Christian Temperance Union send greetings of hearty sympathy in the work, and request the next assembly to be in Nashville.

(Signed) MRS. NATHANIEL BAXTER,
Secretary.

Alexander Johnson, of Indianapolis, thought that, as the Prison Congress was held in Nashville last fall, it would be too soon for a similar conference to meet there next year. He was strongly in favor of the Conference going to Indianapolis.

Mrs. M. C. Goodlett, of Tennessee, thought that, if the Conference were trying to do good, it should go to Nashville.

Dr. Walk suggested that the report of the Committee on Time and Place be divided, and that a vote should be taken first on the place. Unanimous consent to this was given.

Mr. McCulloch, of Indianapolis, thought the Conference was in the position of the young lady who had two admirerers, of whom she said,—

"How happy could I be with either,
Were t'other dear charmer away!"

He hoped the invitation to Indianapolis would be accepted, as he thought great good might be done by holding the meeting in so central a place. He was ready to promise full reports in the newspapers, and in that way the public would be widely reached.

A rising vote was then taken: twenty-four in favor of Nashville, ninety-two in favor of Indianapolis.

Mr. Letchworth moved that the question of time be left with the Executive Committee.

Mr. Storrs thought it better that the Conference should decide on the time. A rising vote was taken on Mr. Letchworth's amendment, and it was decided by fifty-two to twenty-two that the matter of time should be left with the Executive Committee.

The order of the morning, "Hospitals," was then taken up. The chairman of the committee, Dr. Henry M. Hurd, of Baltimore, took charge for the hour, and read a brief report (page 155).

A paper on "The Public Hospitals of Brooklyn" was read by Dr. L. S. Pilcher, of Brooklyn (page 177).

A paper on "Hospital Management," by David Judkins, M.D., of Cincinnati, Ohio (page 163), and one on "Advantages of Hospital Treatment, with a Plan of Construction for Natural Ventilation," by

J. McFadden Gaston, M.D., of Atlanta, Ga. (page 169), were read by title, and referred to the Committee on Publication.

A paper on "The Relation of the General Hospital to the Medical Profession" was then read by Dr. Hurd (page 156).

DISCUSSION ON HOSPITALS.

Hon. Oscar Craig, of New York, took the chair, and invited Rev. T. P. Haley, of Missouri, to open the discussion.

Mr. HALEY.— As the pastor of several large city churches in the West for nearly a quarter of a century, I have had somewhat to do with hospitals, and I have been exceedingly interested in the papers which have been read. The first paper mentioned the fact that in all our cities too little is known concerning the work of the hospitals. I suppose most pastors will bear me witness that the average patient, when advised to go to a hospital, manifests a great antipathy to it. Many would rather die in the midst of squalor and wretchedness than be transferred to a hospital. It is almost impossible to induce patients who are in comfortable circumstances to allow themselves to be treated in hospitals. They object to going, whether for disease or for surgical operations, to the very best equipped hospitals in our Western cities. Those gentlemen would be real benefactors who would assure patients in the homes of the poor, and of the rich, too, that the quickest and surest relief would be found in our city hospitals. If this were better appreciated, it would excite the benevolence of the rich to these blessed institutions, and they would be helped by larger endowments.

Mr. CRAIG.— These suggestions from one who has had practical experience undoubtedly find a ready response in all who are present.

Judge Jordan, of Indiana, asked whether training schools should be a part of hospital work.

Dr. HURD.— The training school should be an integral part of the hospital. It should not be something imposed on it by an outside organization.

Judge JORDAN.— I think most of the training schools are organized outside of the hospital. Dr. Hurd recommends that they should be an integral part of hospitals. It seems to me that it is a question whether the running of training schools for nurses might not be left to the benevolent ladies of the country.

Miss I. I. HAMPTON, of Baltimore, superintendent of the Training School for Nurses.— I believe that Dr. Hurd added the proviso in his paper that the training school should be an integral part of the hospital, *if it were not a political hospital.* If a hospital is under the dominion of politics, then it is right and proper that the training school should be a separate organization.

Mr. ROSENAU.— What means of punishment is provided in Brooklyn for those who send in false calls for the hospital ambulance?

Dr. PILCHER.— I do not know that that phase of disturbance has

ever occupied our attention. It is true that in ambulance work a great many unnecessary calls are issued. Often, calls are sent out hurriedly, without due information as to the character of the accident; and, when the ambulance reaches the place, it is found that there is nothing demanding attention. Our directors, however, have taken this stand, that a policeman is never to constitute himself a judge as to whether the case demands an ambulance or not. It is his business, when he is told that an ambulance is needed, to answer the call. When it comes, it is time enough for the ambulance surgeon to decide. Though there may be a great deal of unnecessary work, the result is that the emergency, when it does arrive, is met. The annoyance that arises from unnecessary calls is considered as nothing compared with that.

Mr. ROSENAU. — I refer to calls that are sent for malicious purposes.

Dr. PILCHER.— The whole matter is under the control of the police. All our calls come through them.

Mr. ROSENAU.— Do you think that Brooklyn is so well patrolled by police that an emergency call can always be sent in by a policeman?

Dr. PILCHER.— I have simply stated the facts as they are at present.

Mr. ROSENAU.— The Charity Organization of Buffalo maintains an emergency hospital. We have an ambulance that responds to calls; but we are frequently annoyed by *false* calls, made from motives of mischief. The ambulance is on the street in seventy seconds after the call. Sometimes we have made runs of six miles, to find there was no case, and never had been one. I would like to know if any city has a method of fining or punishing offenders of that class.

Dr. PILCHER.— The matter has never come to the attention of the authorities in Brooklyn, and has not been provided for.

Mr. ROSENAU.— What service does your ambulance render at fires?

Dr. PILCHER.— They render no service unless they are telephoned for.

Mr. ROSENAU.— May I tell what we do in case of fires? Our ambulance responds to every second alarm; that is, a fire that is more than a small conflagation. If it becomes still more extensive, additional medical force is sent for. We have doctors, with stimulants, bandages, dressings, in readiness for firemen as well as for any others that may be injured. The firemen suffer very severely at times from cinders. At every fire we improvise little hospitals, at some advantageous point; and a surgeon is always there with cocoaine and instruments to clear out their eyes. In addition to that, we have a large boiler in which coffee is made; and, when the fire is of any length of time, the ambulance is provided with this in five-gallon cans. The surgeons take with them a pitcher, and go around with it wherever the firemen are, sometimes on a roof of a six-story building. Whenever it is necessary, a stronger stimulant is always on hand. This

service is entirely gratuitous. We have found that by being on hand we have been able to save the firemen from serious injury by insisting that they shall be properly taken care of. The fireman, as a rule, is a self-sacrificing man. He does not care for what may be a little burn or wound, and it is only when the doctor insists that he must be taken care of that he will take care of himself. Our ambulance being at the fire, if any accident happens, we are ready to give immediate relief. The fire department is correspondingly grateful for our work. There is one other matter with regard to ambulance service. A policeman finds a man on the street in a condition which may be drunkenness, or which may be the result of concussion. The policeman does not know which. He usually rings up a patrol wagon, drops the man in as if he were a bundle, and carts him off to the police station. Afterward it is discovered that the man is seriously injured, and has concussion of the brain. Several such cases have occurred. We have not discovered the way yet for a policeman to discriminate as to when a patrol wagon shall be called and when an ambulance shall be summoned.

Rev. F. J. C. MORAN, of Indianapolis.— I simply wish to indorse what Dr. Hurd said about the nurses' training school being an integral part of the hospital. I have watched very carefully the work at St. Luke Hospital in South Bethlehem, Penn., where the training school is a definite part of the management. Having seen the difficulty in England between training institutions and the medical authorities, and on the other hand the perfect harmony and excellent work in our Bethlehem hospital, I wish to say a word in favor of the two institutions being absolutely the same, as far as government is concerned.

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Saturday night, May 17.

The Conference met at eight o'clock, Hon. Oscar Craig in the chair. Order for the evening: "Training Schools for Nurses."

A paper on "Training Schools for Nurses" was read by Miss I. I. Hampton, superintendent of the training school connected with the Johns Hopkins Hospital (page 140).

A paper on "The Science of Nursing, a Plea," by Anna M. Fullerton, M.D., of the Woman's Hospital, Philadelphia, was read (page 130).

An address on "A Bureau of Information. The Need of a Post-graduate School for Nurses," was given by Charlotte B. Brown, M.D., of San Francisco, Cal. (page 147).

A paper on "The Training Schools of the Future" was read by E. Cowles, M.D., Somerville, Mass. (page 115). Dr. Cowles said that he heartily subscribed to all that had been said with reference to a bureau of information or some central authority that should keep up the standard of the training of nurses.

A paper by Mrs. Andrew Heermance Smith was read by title, and referred to the Committee on Publication (page 110).

Mrs. John F. Unger, of Philadelphia, spoke as follows concerning the work of Evangelical Deaconesses: —

Mrs. UNGER. — I do not know whether this body at any of its former meetings has taken cognizance of the old apostolic order of deaconesses which has been revived within recent years, but the order is gaining such an important foothold in this country that it is worthy of notice. The founder of this order, Pastor Fliedner, a Reformed pastor, began his work at Kaiserwert, Germany, about 1826, after securing a permanent endowment for his church (Reformed) in that city, by organizing the first Prison Society in Germany, on June 18, 1826. In 1833, he opened in that city a refuge for discharged female prisoners. His circle of practical philanthropy then extended, and in his experience in hospital work he concluded that the interest of the sick poor could be best served by an organized body of women trained especially and devoted for such work. He accordingly, in 1836, began the first Deaconess House and hospital at Kaiserwert. Educational work was also added to the manifold benevolent work established under the auspices of the deaconesses, which was rapidly extended all over Germany; and branches in Jerusalem, Smyrna, Constantinople, Alexandria, Bucharest, Samoa, London, and Philadelphia, Omaha, Chicago, Cincinnati. Pastor Fliedner himself made a tour of England and the United States, as well as of the East, in order to establish, if possible, mother houses for the training of deaconesses.

This order has attained a world-wide field of operation in the establishment of benevolent associations of every description under the supervision of these deaconesses. They are bound by no vows of celibacy, neither are they obliged to remain permanently in the order, in case they should prove to have missed their vocation or the life should prove too burdensome. They are not required to sacrifice their private property. But they devote their time and service to the cause of humanity without any remuneration except food and clothing, and that consciousness which constitutes the highest recompense of all, that they are following the example of Him who offered himself a willing sacrifice in life and death for suffering humanity. About the year 1852, that distinguished and successful philanthropist, Dr. William Pasavant, of Pittsburg, visited Kaiserwert, and became so inspired with what he there saw of Pastor Fliedner's work at that early day that he came home, bringing with him three German dea-

conesses, with whom he began his work of establishing institutions of various kinds. The idea did not prove popular in the Protestant world of that day in this country; and he did not receive sufficient recruits to depend upon to succeed without salaried nurses in conducting the various institutions, which, however, he succeeded in establishing in Eastern Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois, with great and signal success. The distance between Germany and America is, however, so lessened in this day of steamships that the work of the deaconesses in Germany is much better known than formerly. A great deal of the institutional work in Germany, which is especially adapted for women, is under their care. The Reformed and Lutheran Churches in this country are beginning to take up similar work of a denominational character; also, the Episcopal, Presbyterian, Methodist, Baptist, and others, under the care of deaconesses. There is now being established a House of Deaconesses and hospital in Omaha, under the care of the Lutheran pastor Fogleström. He finds it comparatively easy to get recruits for the deaconesses among the Swedes of the North-west.

The hospital and Deaconess House at Omaha, though founded and superintended by Pastor Fogleström, is intended, he tells me, to be undenominational, as persons of all denominations are represented in its establishment, and the work of the deaconesses generally. He is in favor of that policy. In Philadelphia, though the German Hospital is nominally undenominational, yet the deaconess interest is under Lutheran auspices. The rector, Pastor Cordes, takes the spiritual supervision of the institution, and acts as chaplain for the German patients at the hospital also. He has a beautiful rectory upon the grounds, and his wife was formerly a deaconess in Germany. Their presence and work are a most beautiful feature of these interesting institutions.

We have in Philadelphia a noble hospital, under the care of thirty-six of this order of evangelical deaconesses. This is known as the "Mary Drexel Home and Mother Home for Deaconesses," and contains a children's hospital, and has recently also been opened as a home for aged persons. This magnificent institution was erected and endowed by Mr. Lankenow as a memorial to his wife, Mary Drexel. The Sister Superior is a distinguished woman of rank, Baroness von Oresten, under whose entire supervision this whole cluster of institutions is conducted in a most excellent and superior manner. She herself passed through three great European wars, and was sent by the late Emperor William from one end of Germany to the other, and into Paris during the Franco-Prussian War, with the cannon. This woman, who has sacrificed everything that makes life beautiful in the most cultured European centres, desires now to train young American and German women as nurses for hospital work and for the poor in their homes.

The chapel in the Mary Drexel Home is one of the most exquisite in Philadelphia, as a specimen of ecclesiastic art. The service is

liturgical. The rector intones the service antiphonally with a choir of deaconesses, accompanied by a fine organ, played also by a deaconess. In short, the life is perfectly ideal, though intensely active. There are no drones in that busy hive. But there is a high inspiration in it all that is more than the mere cold routine of duty and mere labor. Every deaconess's face shines with an inward light that is not of this world, and that contains the secret of the great success of this great and noble work.

But it is a pity that at least the Reformed Church should not be united in this work, for it is under Reformed auspices that this work had its origin in Germany; and this denomination is strongly represented in this country also, as well as the Lutheran, the union of which constitutes the Protestant Established Church of Germany. The predecessor of Sister Wando, Baroness von Oresten, who is a Lutheran, was also a woman of rank and widow of a distinguished general of the Franco-Prussian War. She was Reformed, but was obliged to become Lutheran when she came to Philadelphia, which has never been a necessity in Europe. Strange inconsistency and very suggestive, somewhat reversing the order of things in this age.

The demand for the nurses is far greater than the supply, as other institutions constantly apply for deaconesses at the training school, which has not itself all required for their own work. It seems a pity that the American women do not know more of this beautiful work and the opportunities it affords for good training. If it were only better known, the ranks of the novitiates would soon be more than filled.

The Reformed Churches and the Presbyterians, unitedly, are establishing a Deaconess Home at Cincinnati, in connection with a hospital.

Adjourned at 10.30 P.M.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Sunday morning, May 18.

The Conference met at the First Presbyterian Church, where the Conference sermon was preached by Archdeacon Alexander Mackay-Smith, of New York (page 16).

NINTH SESSION.

Sunday night, May 18.

An evening session devoted to the interests of prison reform was held in the Unitarian church, Rev. C. R. Weld, pastor. Mr. Weld conducted the devotional services, and introduced Mr. G. S. Griffith,

of Baltimore, who presided. Addresses, abstracts of which follow, were given by Warden H. F. Hatch, T. J. Charlton, General R. Brinkerhoff, and A. O. Wright.

ADDRESS OF H. F. HATCH, OF MICHIGAN.

I wish to explain to this audience, if I can, my ideas of what is meant by prison reform. There seems to be a misunderstanding of the true aims and theories of the men who are engaged in introducing reforms into prison management in this country. In the public mind, it is thought of as a sentimental regard for crime and criminals, as a simple effort to mitigate the suffering necessary to expiate crime. Now, the men engaged in the movement have never thought of it in this way. They regard the criminal as incapable, defective; as in some way out of adjustment with his environment in free life, and that, for the purposes of citizenship, he must be readjusted, disciplined, restrained. There are but two ways to dispose of a criminal. Either he must be permanently confined or he must be prepared for the duties of a citizen. We cannot permanently confine them all, and but two ways are suggested as likely to restrain him from crime while in liberty. One is, punish him so severely that he will be restrained by fear: the other is to change his character so that he will live as a citizen from choice. From the beginning of criminal procedure in the world, we have only thought of criminals as men to be punished. We have relied entirely upon fear as a deterrent. Now, fear is a great restraint: we all daily experience it. The activities of all men are, in a measure, affected by it. It should therefore have a place in all prison administration that is intended to repress crime, but it ought not to be the main reliance. We have thought that, because a just and equitable and proper punishment inflicted upon a man would restrain him by fear, an increase of punishment would increase the fear, and, therefore, the restraint; yet we all know, from our own experience and observation, that a brutal and excessive punishment will arouse emotions of vindictiveness and revenge, which are much more powerful in their operations than fear, and will therefore render it entirely inoperative. The man will wish to do the very thing for which he has been so punished. In order to get the greatest effect of deterrence from punishment, it should in no way be excessive, but should only be to that point that would be regarded as just and necessary, and therefore only arouse emotions of fear: that punishment does great harm which arouses resentment.

The State has a right to demand of its citizens compliance with law. The prison administration has a right to require of its population perfect good order in prison. Punishment necessary to produce this should be applied.

In free society, you have the public school system. You build churches and organize correctional and reformative work through-

out the State for the purpose of establishing the true ethical standard of human conduct. You use force when these agencies have failed. Why should these methods be changed in prison? We believe that we should take the same things into prison government that you use outside,— that the church should be there, that the school should be there, that magazines and literature of every sort should be there that will tend to culture and elevate a man, and prepare him for the duties which you are soon to require of him, and that we should only use force when these methods fail; and that is the essential difference between the present system and the old.

Instead of relying upon fear as a deterrent exclusively, we wish to rely upon education and culture and religion as far as we can. Then we ought to do exactly what is done outside a prison,— if we fail, apply force. There must be a distinctive object to be accomplished when a punishment is inflicted which is the measure of judgment. The object is to be accomplished by the process of punishment. Retributive punishment has no object, and is therefore wrong. There can be no possible object in the mere suffering of a man that is to produce no result. Individuals may be vindictive, but a great State in its organized capacity can never be so.

Exemplary punishment has a distinctive object, which is to punish one man so severely as to terrorize all others who know of it. The idea is to increase severities in prison administration to a point where all those who have once experienced them, as well as all those who know of them, will forever live in an orderly observance of law from the fear which the contemplation of such experiences arouses. It punishes one man for the effect upon another. It is confessedly unjust, and injustice is wrong; and I have tried to show that such a punishment will always fail to produce the desired result, because it will arouse the worst emotion known to human nature, not only in a culprit, but in all those who know of it.

Punishment, in order to be exemplary, must have passed the line of necessity for the purpose, not of its effect upon the men punished, but upon the men who know of the punishment. There is no measure of judgment to determine its extent. If you pass the line of necessity, you pass the line of justice; and there is no limit.

The Russian government is making revolutionists every moment by this method. Every government that punishes criminals with that view is increasing crime. We have had abundant illustrations of punitive governments, and they have never been able to check crime. It is time that we attempted something different.

A punishment should be inflicted with the idea of obtaining compliance, should be continued until compliance is obtained, and must then stop. This is correctional punishment, and will produce the greatest deterrence from fear, and the greatest education and culture that can come from force.

These prison reformers simply wish to take into prison exactly the same things that you use outside,— churches, schools, books, everything that will elevate and broaden human character.

These men, who are criminals, who have been convicted of crime, must certainly be the worst men in your community. If that be true, then will you continue to deprive these men of all the civilizing influences which you think necessary to yourself, because they have proved that they are the most deficient in them? If they are most deficient, is not that the very reason why we should give them everything that will make them better? What is the matter with this criminal? He is a criminal because he is ignorant, because he has never been in a school-house, because he has never been in a church, because he has never associated with the better elements of human society. Ordinarily, if you expected to cure him, you would urge him to avail himself of these things; but, because he has been convicted of crime, you seem to imagine that judgment should be reversed, and that he should be shut up in prison, and that the process is, in some way, to make a citizen of him. In a definite time he is to come out again, and you are to require the duties of a citizen from him; and yet, during all that time, you are to deprive him of every opportunity which you have heretofore judged essential to human progress.

A time sentence is rational only on the ground that the convict is to be a citizen at the end of it; and we must determine whether punishment is more likely to accomplish this than education. Let us see exactly what we want to do. Let us study the subject calmly and without prejudice.

The object of imprisonment is the protection of society. This must be accomplished either by permanent confinement, so that the criminal is unable to commit crime, or by character changes, so that he will be unwilling to commit crime. Confinement must be temporary, therefore character changes in a man must be the only permanent reliance. He was a thief when he went into prison, and he must be changed by some process, or he will be a thief when he comes out. Severities may be necessary in the process, very likely will be; and, when they are, they should be applied until the object of punishment is accomplished. Punishment is a process, not an object. The object of punishment is compliance. When it is applied, it should be continued until compliance is obtained, and should then stop. It should never be applied as a retribution or as an example, but simply as a correction. No punishment is brutal or inhuman that is necessary to obtain compliance, because the State has a right to demand compliance from its citizens, the warden has a right to demand compliance from a prison population. Any punishment not necessary for this purpose has an element of brutality in it, however slight it is. This constitutes a perfect measure of judgment for the warden. He only punishes when necessary, and to the extent that is necessary to affect the man most, and to bring him into compliance with law and the necessary rules for the government of a prison; but force and fear have never tended to permanently adjust men to the proper conditions of free life, or lead them into observance of good order in prison. There is no education in force, except that it teaches a man

not to do some particular act. It in no way teaches him the right way. That must be the result of education and culture.

If these statements are true, if I have made no mistake in my reasoning, it compels you to introduce into prison government all the civilizing influences of these times. Indeed, you need more inside the prison than you do outside of it, because the most debased and ignorant portion of your population are certainly there. Let us leave the interests of the criminal entirely out of the question.

The men who discuss prison reform expect to cure the prisoner while in confinement. If punishment and suffering are necessary to the process, let them be inflicted. If pleasure is found best, let it be given. They regard the prisoner as a problem that must be worked out. They care very little for the process. They regard him as the surgeon does his patient. The knife must go to the line of necessity to effect a cure.

Let us see the method of receiving a young criminal in a punitive prison. The idea is to terrorize him so that he will never dare to violate the law, that the fear of terrible severities will forever keep him in restraint. The officers, therefore, speak to him harshly, command him, order him, and never instruct him. He responds like a jack in the box. He is terrified, of course. It seems to him as though every room in the grated corridors contained instruments of torture. It is intended that he shall have that inpression. They do all they can to humiliate him. They make him understand from everything they say that they are his enemies, that they are there to oppress him, that he is to feel the terrible torture and punishment, so that he will never dare to run the risk of coming back again. Finally, he is assigned a cell, and is alone with his thoughts. The sounds that come to him down the darkened corridors are new to him: the hot tears come to him now, he is without a friend in the world, the operation has done its perfect work. In the morning he goes out to the shop, falls in with the old crooks, and finds friends. The officers of a great State have convinced him that they are his enemies: the criminals of a great State have convinced him they are his friends. He does exactly what you or I would do, attaches himself to his friends. The war begins. His whole life and thought and energy are involved in an effort to circumvent the officers. Emotions of secretiveness, vindictiveness, dishonesty, and all the worst passions of human nature are constantly cultivated in him, while the best are allowed to remain dormant for the want of use. He marches from cell to shop, from shop to dining-room, where he has substantially the same food every day,— from dining-room to shop, and from shop to cell. It is one continuous routine, without a gleam of hope. His term finally ends, as all things will; and the boy stands outside the prison door, looking out upon the great State which is his home. He has been subjected to the process of the advancing civilization, to cure him of the evil tendencies acquired in youth. Now, what do you think he will do? All the advice and friendship he has had since he has been in prison

have been from the old crooks, who have stayed by him, and have encouraged him to take punishment; and he has taken it, and stood it like a little man, that he may be regarded as a hero. He has been punished severely; he has been proud to be punished.

Now, suppose when that boy came into prison, the warden had sat down quietly beside him, and said: "Now look here, my boy, tell me about yourself. Where have you been? Where have you lived? Who were your father and mother?" He will likely learn that the boy was born in the slums of a great city, that he has slept on the door-steps and wharves and docks from the first moment he can remember, that he has never had a home, that he has fed from the barrels in the street, and that the policemen have jerked him from the fruit-stands where he tried to steal an orange; and then he would say to him: "My boy, you have not had a fair chance in the world. Other boys have had an opportunity to go to school. You have had no friends to advise you; but I will be your friend. We have schools here; and we will teach you reading, writing, and arithmetic, how to work, so that, when you go out, you can have some money in your pocket that you earned yourself, and you will know how to make your own way in the world. Whatever happens, remember that I will always be your friend, that I will always advise you right, and you are always to come to me. If you are ever in trouble, tell your keeper that you want to see the warden; and he will send your number up, and I will call you in. Whatever trouble you have, come to me, and I will help you out. Out here in the yard are a good many old crooks who have been in prison all their lives, and they may advise you not to do these things; but their advice is bad, and they are in prison as the result of their own acts. Take my advice, for it is certainly better. You can make a man of yourself. And, when you go out, I will help you to get a place, as I have helped many a man."

Now, is there any gush about that? Would you have done that for the boy before he committed that crime that sent him to prison? If so, why not after he has committed the crime? Is there any possible reason why it is not in your interest that this boy should be cultured and befriended, and strengthened and guided, that he may be prepared to perform duties as a citizen among you? Suppose we don't care anything about him; suppose we don't consider his interest at all: isn't it in your interest that he be taken from the crime class and added to the productive class of your citizens?

When I went into the prison business, I believed thoroughly in the deterrent effect of punishment. I supposed of course, if a man violated a rule, I had got to punish him. I studied the subject continually, and tried hard to determine the true theory of punishment. I studied the punishments of God as exhibited in nature, and I began to suspect that his methods are the highest possible standard; and I came finally to this. When a man would ask, How long have I got to remain in punishment? I would reply: I have nothing whatever to do with that. All I ask is compliance. Rules are necessary, and must

be observed. If they are unjust, I will wipe them out. I make them, because I think they are necessary. If you are reasonably intelligent, and see that they are necessary, why not obey them? If a man said, I will obey them, and if, in my judgment, he was in earnest, I let him go. The object of the punishment had been accomplished. That seemed good and right. But now suppose the next day a man should be reported for violation whose record was clear for the last three years,— he was faithful in his work, and had apparently been thoroughly honest,— and he should say to me: Warden, I am sorry I did that. I can see now that I was wrong. I will never do it again. All the conditions were such that I believed him; but I should say to him: I believe you intend to do right. I have no idea you intended to violate the rules of the place, your conduct warrants me in saying this; but I must punish you, else the other men in your shop will think they can violate in the same manner. He would assent to this as being proper, and would go cheerfully to punishment. Now, what is the measure of judgment in this case? How long must he stay? The measure of judgment in the former case was compliance. I let the man down when he was ready to obey. This man is ready to obey before he goes to punishment. I have sent him to punishment for its effect upon the other men, and the measure of judgment is entirely changed from the man who is suffering to the men in the shop who have not violated. One day will terrorize them some, ten days more, and, if I let him starve there, it seems as though it would terrorize them still more. There is no place to stop in injustice. If I simply wanted to get this man right, I should have known when to stop, so I conclude that I ought not to have punished him at all.

On one occasion, a man got into a fight in one of the shops, and resisted the officers vigorously when they went after him; but they finally brought him to the hall, and sent for me. He knew what it all meant to resist officers in a prison; and he knew, when the warden came, that business was likely to begin. He was about as dejected-looking a man as I ever saw in my life, and I made up my mind to try a new thing. So I sat down quietly by him, and asked him to tell me about it.

He rejected me at first, and I saw that he was so roused against these officers that nothing could likely be done with him, so I sent them out, and they left us alone. The man was ready to acknowledge that I must have good order in the prison, that he ought not to be permitted to fight, and that, when he did, he ought not to resist the officers. Gradually, I was able to arouse the best emotions of his life. Finally, he was crying, and said to me: "Warden, you are the only man in the world that ever said a kind word to me since the day I was born. You can punish me as severely as you care to, and I will go back to the shop, do my work faithfully; and I will never violate another rule while you are warden of this prison." And I said to him: "If that is the case, why should I punish you at all? I be-

lieve you are in earnest. If I punish you, it will be simply to get you to do that; and, if you are in earnest, the objects of the punishment have already been accomplished." And he said: "That won't do, warden. I have been in prison, I know these men, and any such leniency as that will do you great harm. You will have more fights in that shop in the next month than you can attend to." But I said to him: "I don't believe it at all. It is not a pleasure to inflict suffering upon you. I would rather help you. Go out to the shop now, do your work, study hard in school, read good books, help yourself that you may be ready to earn an honest living when your time is out, and, when the other men fight, I will take up their case." I had no fights in that shop for many months; and I have got a letter now which I received from this man after he had been out of prison less than a year, in which he said, "Warden, I have got a hundred dollars in the bank, and a good business; and I thank God and the warden of the Michigan State Prison for it."

Let us have no sympathy about it, let us have no sentimentalism about it, let us have no gush about it. This man has cost the State of Michigan a good many dollars, but I believe he will never cost them another dollar. In the interest of the hard-fisted old tax-payers of the State, I believe I have earned them some money in that case.

These are not theories: they are facts about living criminals; and I am able to illustrate them at any time inside the walls of Jackson Prison. You can illustrate them for yourself everywhere in the world.

In one of the punishment cells in the Michigan Prison, to-night, a man is lying on the stone floor, handcuffed. He has been there a good while. He is a desperado, and has the real criminal instincts. He is born so, as a wolf is born a wolf. I regard him as beyond human cure. Morals are taught through the emotions. He has no such emotions. He has no emotions of hope and love. It is impossible to begin the process. He was neglecting his work, and the foreman complained to me about him. I called him in, and talked to him that he might avoid a report. I told him that I wanted to help him, and I called him in because I did not want him to have trouble; but he said: "I am doing all the work I can. I won't try to do any more. If you want to punish me, punish me." And business began, and has continued ever since. When I am satisfied that he is willing to comply with the rules of the Michigan State Prison, I will send him out; but, in the providence of God, his punishment will continue until I am satisfied. That is the other side of it.

A correctional punishment may be more severe than any other, because it is applied for a purpose, and has a distinctive object which must be accomplished.

ADDRESS OF T. J. CHARLTON.

My life has been connected with prisons only as a visitor; but I have long been in connection with a reformatory for a class of boys from ten to twenty-one years of age, and I am a firm believer that twenty-one years was never intended as a limit to the reformatory power that exists in man. That is, I do not believe that, when a young man passes his twenty-first year, he is no longer capable of reforming. If reformatory influences can save a young man under twenty-one, I cannot see why they cannot save one over twenty-one. Most of our prisoners are under thirty years of age. In looking over the six hundred and ninety prisoners in the Maryland Penitentiary to-day, I noticed that the great mass were young men.

This whole matter of punishments has been undergoing changes from the earliest civilizations up to now. I remember, in college, studying the laws of Athens, and how Draco made every punishment death. His laws were so severe that they were said to be "written in blood." When asked why he gave the death penalty for everything, he replied that the least offence required death, and that he could think of nothing worse for the more serious offences. But the punishments of the old time are obsolete; and we have come to the end of the nineteenth century, when every one can see progress. Victor Hugo, in "Les Misérables," describes a great character, Jean Valjean, a man who for some slight offence was sentenced to the life of a galley-slave. At that time, the laws were all vindictive. There was no effort at reformation; and, wherever this man would go in his efforts to flee, he was pursued by the vindictive laws of that country. He would have given up in discouragement, had not the good bishop shown that he had a heart for him. So these men in prison need some good bishop, some good Samaritan, to impress upon them that there is some one who loves them and has faith in them. I believe that in every human breast there is recuperative power. I do not believe "once a wrong-doer, always a wrong-doer." "Do you expect to do anything for those young felons?" I was once asked. "Yes: save them." "All of them?" "Most of them." "Well, I do not think you can do it." If we accepted that doctrine, where should we all be? Have we never done anything in our lives that was wrong? If every sinful habit of youth is going to keep on, where would be the good men and women of the world? There is recuperative power in the soul, and it exists in the older criminals as well as in the young. In my experience, we have as much success with the boys who come commuted by the governor as with the younger ones. I do not think we work along educational lines as much as we should do. I have visited the great Reformatory at Elmira, N.Y. I have been there at the close of the day, when the prisoners, instead of marching with lock-step to their cells to be locked up for twelve hours in solitude and darkness, went, in an orderly manner, after supper, to their recitation-rooms, like students in college. I went to

every class-room where instruction was given, from the classes in reading and writing on up to the lecture-rooms, where I heard a lecture on political economy. The teachers were the best that could be procured. At the hour for dismissal, the men went to their well-lighted cells, and spent till nine o'clock in studying their next day's lessons. You and I know that many of those men upon going to sleep must have been grateful to the State of New York for what it was doing for them. There are prisons all over the country that are doing nothing in the way of education for the men and women in them. Many of these criminals cannot read. Others read indifferently. I hold that we should instruct them, so that they will love to read good books. George D. Prentiss said that the hours of danger to most men are from sunset to midnight. Those are the hours when crime stalks abroad. Teach the young to love reading, and during those hours they will have an anchor to keep them at home.

I believe in prison reform. I believe our laws are far in advance of public sentiment in this matter. Forty years ago, the Constitution of Indiana said that no law should be vindictive, and that punishment should look to the reform of the prisoner. All honor to Robert Dale Owen, one of the grandest men we ever had, for that clause in our Bill of Rights!

ADDRESS OF GENERAL BRINKERHOFF.

The subject of prison reform is one of the most important subjects that can occupy the American mind at this time. It is a fact that confronts us that crime in America is on the increase, out of proportion to the population. The statistics that I gave to the Conference on Thursday may explain this to a certain extent. Crime is rising like a tide that has no ebb. If this condition of things continued without cessation, civilized society could not exist.

Now, what are we going to do? Here are a hundred thousand men in jails and penitentiaries at the present time. If you take the whole number that pass through the jails annually, you can multiply that by ten, so that in round numbers you might say there are a million. Of course, many of these are repeaters, and the most of them are minor offenders; but they are on the road to higher crimes. When you come to the station-houses of our great cities, and look at the men and women who pass through them, you can largely increase the number. Then, if you go out into society, and look at the men who live on crime, you can largely increase the number who belong to the crime class.

Something must be done. In the first place, we ought to have the most accurate information that it is possible to get on this subject. Every physician likes to have an accurate diagnosis before he enters upon a case. He wants to know the facts. There is pending in the House of Representatives at Washington a bill which has been ap-

proved by the National Prison Congress, by which there is to be a statistical bureau for the purpose of gathering statistics of crime. Let us know how many criminals we have, and where they are, and what is the condition of the prisons. If there is any one in this audience who can help the committee which is considering the formation of that bureau of statistics to act, I wish he would do it.

We ought to study what *can* be done by what *has* been done. We are trying to study this question from a scientific standpoint. What is the result, for instance, of the work that they do at Elmira, N.Y.? There they are dealing with felons. The result is that eighty-two per cent. of its graduates have re-established themselves, and are living honest lives. Is there any sentimentalism about that? There is one country where crime has been decreasing for forty or fifty years, and that is Great Britain. I wish I had about an hour to tell the romance of one man's life in the county of Gloucester, Eng., who died a few years ago, and from whom I learned more about prison reform than from all the men I know. When Barwick Baker began to deal with crime on scientific and philosophic lines, there were seven prisons in Gloucestershire, all full; and they were talking about building another. For forty years he carried on scientific preventive and reformatory work, especially among children. The first reformatory was established on his own land, by the aid of a young man who had an income of fifty thousand a year, an Oxford graduate, who had the love of God and humanity in his heart, who went into that reformatory, and stayed there night and day, and slept with those young scoundrels. This first reformatory in England was followed by others. Along with that, they got legislation along those lines, by which they could have post-penitentiary treatment — which is more important than that in the penitentiary — through police supervision and prisoners' aid societies, such as Mr. Griffith has established here. (And I want to say that the Prisoners' Aid Society of Baltimore is doing as noble work as is being done in this country. There is a Prisoner's Aid Society connected with every prison in England.) After forty years of this work in Gloucestershire, Mr. Baker wrote me that, instead of having seven prisons all full, they had but one prison, and that was *not* full. Crime is on the decrease there.

Here, too, we must begin with preventive work by the industrial training of boys and girls in the schools. We ought to have in every city where there is a high school thorough industrial training by which the hand is educated. And then, when boys get into prison, we ought to deal with them intelligently.

But we shall never accomplish any large reform until we reform our jails. Think of the thousands of men passing through our jails! Go into an average county jail, and what do you find? You find among every dozen men two or three professional criminals, old crooks,— men who devote their lives to crime, and mean to be criminals all their lives. You will find the most of the others young men who do not belong to the crime class. What are they doing? There

they are day after day, with nothing to do, in the common corridor talking and gossiping. Nothing pleases these old scoundrels better than to instruct these young men in all kinds of crime. All over the United States, with a very few exceptions that you can count on the fingers of your hand, this thing is going on. They are compulsory schools of crime. There are no truants in that school.

Go into the Baltimore jail, one of the best in the United States. Out of the best dozen, I would put that as one. It is admirably kept. It is clean, well-lighted, airy, and everything of that kind; and there is some classification. How is it there? In every one of those cells there will be two sleeping together, who will learn all they can of crime from one another. By day, it is the same; for they are together in the corridors. Is that good sense?

In the first place, we must, in our county jails, where persons are temporarily waiting trial, separate them, so that there shall be no communication. Go to the Boston jail. Two hundred and fifty thousand persons have gone through there in the last thirty years without contamination. They go out cleaner in body and mind than when they came in. Go to the Mansfield (Ohio) jail, where I live, where a person comes in and has no opportunity to see any other person. He cannot be recognized by any thief or burglar when he goes out. It is easier to control the inmates by this system. It is better for the prisoner, better for the community. Why not do it?

So, along all the lines, we must classify. Not over twenty-five per cent. of all the men in prison are professional criminals. The others are in through the accidents of life,— from environment, from temptation, from lack of education, especially of industrial education. Why should we not try, as Warden Hatch does, to reinstate them in society? Why not?

This is a vital problem. It is essential to the preservation of the State. The State should bring to bear upon it an intelligent public opinion.

There is another bill pending in Washington. It has passed the House, and is pending in the Senate. It is in regard to a United States prison. There are from twelve to thirteen hundred men convicted of felony against the laws of the United States who are in prison. Where do they send them? To certain prisons that belong to certain States,— twenty-seven different States. They are put in prisons over which the United States government has no control, over whose appointees the United States officers have nothing whatever to say. This great government of ours takes up men for violating its laws, and sends them to prison without any care, without any attention, without any direction of them. Then there are thirty thousand men arrested annually for being offenders against United States laws that are in these crime schools of which I have spoken. That is what this government is doing this very hour. What are *you* going to do about it? There is a bill pending which provides for three United States prisons for United States prisoners,— one in the

South, one in the North, and one on the Pacific Coast. If you can help the Senate to action on that, you will do good work. It will give us prisons under the control of the federal government, which we hope to make model prisons for the several States to imitate.

ADDRESS OF A. O. WRIGHT.

This is the centennial year of the death of John Howard, the first great prison reformer, who began his work by visiting Bedford jail, of which he was high sheriff. Afterward he visited most of the prisons in Europe, and called attention to their condition. He finally died in Russia of jail fever, incurred while visiting Russian prisons. I am glad to be on the same platform with the John Howard of Maryland (G. S. Griffith), who has done so much to raise the condition of the jails in Maryland. A large number of the jails in this country are but little above the condition of the jails of England in John Howard's time. The jails are absolutely the worst thing about our prison system, except the convict lease system in many of our Southern States. I think that is the worst thing in the world, not excepting the system in Russia.

I wish to compare the jail system of the present day with what it was in England and in this country a little over a hundred years ago. At that time, much the same classes of prisoners were in jails as now. Persons who were sentenced for felonies were put to death then. Now they are put in State prisons. In the United States began the first great movement of practical prison reform, beyond the inspection and declaration of abuses,— the reform of providing labor for prisoners. Persons awaiting trial, persons sentenced for minor offences, are still placed together in jail, as a hundred years ago. Witnesses are placed in the same jails, if they cannot give bond, with the persons against whom they expect to testify; and persons are frequently punished for the high crime of being witnesses on account of their poverty. I know a case in my own State of a man who was robbed on a highway. He was a stranger. The robber was a citizen of the county. The robber got bail pending trial. The man who was robbed was sent to jail. That law is in force in every State in the United States to-day. Insane persons are frequently placed in jail to-day, as they were a hundred years ago. Sheriffs get fees for placing insane persons in jails pending commitment to insane hospitals, and a large number of all insane persons pass through the jails to reach the hospitals. This is a crying abuse, which ought to be corrected. Boys and girls, as a rule, are not now placed in jail in this country, as they frequently were in England and in these colonies a hundred years ago. They are, as a rule, in the North, placed in such reformatories as the one Mr. Charlton manages in Indiana. But few of our Southern States have such reformatories, and they sometimes send little boys and girls to penitentiaries. I have heard of a boy of eleven being sent to the penitentiary for life. Persons

are no longer committed to jail for debt. There are ways in which that may still be done in nearly every State in special cases, but ordinarily debtors are not committed. This is a great abuse that has been abolished.

But we still have the same mixture of persons waiting trial, presumed in the eye of the law to be innocent until proved guilty. Doubtless some are guilty, many are really innocent. But in the eye of the law the only crime they have any of them committed is that they are unable to furnish bail until their trial shall be held; and for the crime of poverty they are kept in jail, while the wealthier prisoners are out on bail until trial. After sentence, if sentenced for a misdemeanor, they are sentenced to the same kind of life, in the same place, with the same companionship. Their punishment is no different from that which they underwent before they were convicted. That is the absurdity of our laws to-day. A person placed in jail, pending trial, has exactly the same treatment in every respect as he will have after he has been convicted, if it is a minor offence of which he has been guilty. If it is a punishment to be herded in dirt and idleness, with low companions, the person awaiting trial ought not to be punished in that way, because he has not yet been convicted of crime. If it is *not* a punishment, let us have some punishment that is different from the treatment given to the person awaiting trial.

There are two or three abuses that have been done away with. The old system of compelling prisoners to pay jailers' fees has been abolished. Persons who had served out their sentences and were acquitted by the courts were sometimes kept in jail for years, because they could not pay the jail fees. There was a jail delivery every little while. Some officer was sent around to specially pardon those who had been kept a certain time, and who could not pay the fees. The State now pays the fee instead of the person arrested; and no innocent person, after being legally declared innocent, is now kept in jail because he cannot pay the jail fees.

In many of our jails the sanitary arrangements are better than they were, and jail fever is comparatively unknown. Most of our larger jails have tolerably good sanitary arrangements; but the sanitary condition in general, though better than it used to be, is still bad enough. I have seen a man dying with consumption in a jail — not in my own State — which was underground, the water dripping from the wall, and consumption the result of confinement in jail. The man had not had his trial; but the fact of his confinement had given him, untried, a death sentence. I have seen several jails in our own State nearly as bad in every respect. But our jails are becoming better and better in these respects.

The one great evil is the herding of prisoners together in enforced idleness. The jails are the schools of crime, and one cause, though not by any means the only cause, of the increase of crime is the absurd and wasteful and really cruel practice of *making* criminals in jail. The State by its own processes is constantly creating criminals.

In the county of which Oshkosh is the county seat, a city of thirty thousand people, there is a jail which is pretty bad in a great many respects. Dr. Gordon, the city physician, is preparing a report of that jail to present to the Board of County Supervisors, in which he congratulates the county on its success in the college of crime which it has been carrying on the past year. "Slippery Jim"—giving the cant name by which the prisoner is known—is the professor of burglary, has had a class of a dozen members, and has been eminently successful; and he believes that several will be prepared to graduate with high honors. Bill the Jockey, professor of horse-stealing, and Fakir Charlie, instructor of petty larceny, have had their classes; and it is believed that the pupils have made great proficiency. I hope this report will have great effect. It puts in a telling way the actual facts of the case.

I cordially agree with General Brinkerhoff in what he says in relation to the Baltimore and Boston jails. But I wish to add another fact. Build your jails properly, and still the question of management comes up. General Brinkerhoff and the State Board of Ohio have been laboring to get such a plan in operation that each person in jail shall be kept separate from every other person, and have twenty jails built on a proper plan; yet only one of these jails is managed as it should be. The system of managing jails in the United States to-day is essentially vicious, and must be changed before we can hope to see even properly constructed jails changed into proper houses of detention.

In our State a sheriff can only hold his place for two years, and cannot be elected for the next term. In other States the sheriffs are elected for short terms. It is a purely political office, and qualifications, except physical and political, are rarely considered. The people will vote for a man for sheriff who has no moral qualifications. The sheriffs are in the habit, naturally, of making all the fees they can, because that is the way they are paid. I believe in the Canadian system, in which the sheriff is not the jailer, but the jailer is appointed by the provincial authorities, and is paid a salary, and the feeding of the prisoners is done at the expense of the county. The jailer has no pecuniary interest whatever, as he has under the fee system. His interest is to earn his salary and do his work as well as possible; and, being appointed during good behavior and by responsible authority, pretty good men are selected, and there is an opportunity to secure proper management of the jails.

I believe sentenced prisoners should be sent to a House of Correction. Persons awaiting trial who cannot give bail must be kept in a jail as a house of detention; and they should be able, on the plan of separate confinement, to avoid moral deterioration. Jailers should be appointed by some authority which is removed from politics, and paid a salary. The expense of board should be on the public account plan, and not on the contract plan.

Mr. WELD.—I want you still to remember, for your comfort, that after all only one man out of eight hundred is a criminal.

The meeting closed at 10 P.M.

TENTH SESSION.

Monday morning, May 19.

The Conference met at 10 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Oscar C. McCulloch. Reports from States were called for. Mrs. Anne B. Richardson read a brief report from Massachusetts (page 327).

Dr. BYERS.— May I inquire by what authority your paid visitors and your auxiliary visitors are appointed, and who employs the paid agent?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— Our visitors are appointed by the Board of Lunacy and Charity.

Dr. BYERS.— Do you know the salary of your paid visitors?

Mrs. RICHARDSON.— Our woman visitor has a thousand dollars, and the man twelve hundred dollars. The travelling expenses of both are also paid.

Rev. T. P. Haley made a verbal report in addition to his written report from Missouri. The following is an abstract of his remarks: We have now in our State two and a half million people and one penitentiary, which I regret to say is very full. The warden said recently, with some degree of satisfaction, that it had the largest number of inmates of any Western penitentiary. Our legislature meets once in two years. Four years ago an act was passed for the establishment of a branch penitentiary; but the committee appointed to find a place for it could not agree, because politics entered into the matter to such an extent. After two years some of us succeeded in getting a bill for a house of correction or reformation for boys and an industrial school for girls. When this was accomplished, the bill for the branch penitentiary was repealed. These two industrial schools are starting out after the most approved models. We had before a reformatory for both boys and girls in St. Louis. In regard to the insane I see no marked improvement. We have four State asylums. The patients are in large buildings within cells, and the old methods of management prevail. We are in hopes that the present governor, a young man greatly interested in the management of our institutions, will recommend some improvements along this line. There has been no improvement in our jails: they are still schools of crime. Nor has there been any improvement in the management of poor-farms. Many are miserably managed, and many insane are kept in cells on the farms. For the last ten years quite a number of gentlemen have been exceedingly anxious for a State Board of Charities. The institutions of Missouri are under the management of local boards, and the appropriations for building and maintenance are made on the application and recommendation of these local boards. When we have tried to get a State Board, we have always been opposed by these local boards; and, as they are

widely scattered, they have a marked influence in the legislature. But we are making progress. Many of our enlightened citizens are with us, and the day is not far distant when we shall have a State Board.

Mrs. Elisan Brown, of Virginia, was asked to speak for that State.

Mrs. BROWN.— I come from the Old Dominion, once the mother of States and statesmen. Sorry am I now to be the only woman from there; but, when I received the invitation to be present, I could not resist. I have done a little work in the Society of Friends; but our State needs waking up with reference to all these matters. Help us to wake up the men and women there, and I think Virginia will yet rise and shine.

The order for the day, "State Boards of Charities," was then taken up. The report of the chairman, Fred H. Wines, was read (page 63).

Mr. McCulloch moved that a thousand copies of Mr. Wines's report be reprinted from the Proceedings, for distribution in new States that have not yet formed State Boards.

The motion was seconded by Rev. Myron W. Reed, of Denver.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— After many years' experience in the study of matters connected with State Boards of Charities, I want to say that I heartily approve of the motion; for I think this is the best exposition of the subject which has been made. I would like to amend the resolution to read five thousand copies instead of one thousand.

Mr. McCulloch accepted the amendment.

The resolution was referred to the Executive Committee.

DISCUSSION ON STATE BOARDS.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF, of Ohio.— Ohio, next to Massachusetts, has had the longest experience with a State Board of Charities. Our Board was organized in 1867, so that we have had an opportunity to test its usefulness. Our secretary, Dr. Byers, has been the secretary from the beginning, is secretary still, and I hope will be for a great while to come. I have been a member of that Board for twelve years. Our Board is constituted on the lines laid down in Mr. Wines's paper. We have no executive power. The moment you impose executive power you lose influence. I think that we all agree that a State Board should be taken wholly out of politics if it is to be useful. We have taken our Board absolutely out of politics. The law under which we are organized makes provision for this. It says that there shall not be more than three from the same political party,

so we are equally divided. Since that law was adopted, we have had no trouble with the interference of politicians. We have found it of great advantage to make the governor *ex-officio* chairman of our Board. We have no executive power ourselves; but the moment that we can convince the chairman of the Board of what we need, we have all the executive power we need, because he is the Governor of the State. The result is that our governor is in harmony with the State Board. If he wants information about public institutions, he refers to us. If charges are made against any institution, they are referred to us. I can look over the United States, and, wherever I know that a State Board of Charities has been in existence for some time, I know just where public institutions are at their highest condition. A State Board is of inestimable value. I do not see how a State can get along satisfactorily without one. It has the power to enter any institution, to study it, to become acquainted with it, to know all about it. At the outset, trustees and superintendents of institutions will object to the establishment of a State Board, for they fear they may themselves be interfered with; but very soon after a Board has been established, with a wise, intelligent set of men upon it, the superintendents find that their best friend is the State Board of Charities. If charges are made against an institution, the governor will ask the State Board to look into them, and they go to the bottom of the matter; and a favorable report from the Board is a protection to any institution. The people of our State receive as true what our Board says on that subject. If there is anything in an institution that is wrong, and the Board discovers it, ninety-nine times in a hundred the thing can be rectified by quietly taking the trustees aside, and pointing the wrong out. Hundreds of things are corrected in that way that the public never know anything about. I want to say to the members here from States that have no such Board of Charities, Go home and buttonhole your representatives till you get one.

Mr. HALEY.— If you were a member of a Board of Charities, and an extravagant appropriation was called for by a local board, or if you were confident that a local board was spending an appropriation by the State unwisely, what would be your duty or power?

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— We should have no power except to report against it.

Mr. HALEY.— Would you do that?

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— Certainly, if we felt it to be our duty. Probably we should go quietly and talk it over with the trustees; and, if that were not successful, we should talk it over with the Finance Committee of the House.

Mr. ELMORE.— For twenty years I have been a member of the State Board of Charities of Wisconsin. I am the oldest man in attendance on this Conference who is still in service, and I differ *in toto* from General Brinkerhoff. I have seen the time when the Governor of Wisconsin wanted one thing and the State Board another;

and we have vetoed him. We do not propose that any governor shall dictate to us what we shall do. In 1872 we had in Wisconsin twenty-two almshouses, in 1888 we had forty-eight. The cost of the forty-eight almshouses in 1888 was not more than the cost of the twenty-two in 1872, if you take out the cost of the salaries of the superintendents in the additional institutions; and no man would say the inmates were better cared for in 1872 than in 1888.

The State Board of Wisconsin are cranks. I am one. I am decidedly a crank. I believe that the insane are susceptible to acts of kindness just as much as I am, and that, if you give them good food, warm clothing, and occupation, lots of them will get well enough to take care of themselves. All the medical science of the world is not worth a button to them. They live longer than sane men. I am talking of the chronic insane. There is no State to-day in our country, except the State of Wisconsin, that has a good place for every insane person in it; and we can take care of two hundred more in the buildings now erected, and take care of them well. The secretaries of the State Boards of New York and Illinois have visited our institutions, and can bear testimony to the fact that we take care of them in a proper and humane manner.

I advise all the States that have not one to go to work and get a State Board of Charities. Even a poor State Board is better than none. But get a good one, and you will beat old methods of caring for the chronic insane and paupers four times over every year, and in humanity you will beat them a thousand-fold.

Mrs. C. M. Walker, of the Girls' Reformatory and Woman's Prison, Indianapolis.— I wish to testify to the comfort and security that we have received through the Indianapolis State Board of Charities. Our Reformatory has been in charge of ladies for thirteen years, and our experience is that we wish every State had a State Board. We feel that it is a strong support to us. Heretofore, if discharged prisoners or others have entered any complaint against us, there has been a one-sided investigation. The papers have distorted matters. We feel now that the State Board will look fairly into all matters.

Dr. Byers.— We are under great obligations for this testimony as to the value of the State Board to an institution. An institution like the one represented by Mrs. Walker, though it is managed so successfully, deals exclusively with a class that is very likely to complain. Their complaints are listened to on the outside without proper consideration. The governor must give attention to the complaints, and the newspapers must make as much out of them as they can. Invariably, such things reflect upon the board of management and the heads of the institutions. There is no better institutional management in the United States than the management of the Woman's Prison of Indianapolis. I speak of this in this connection, because they find that, well managed as it is, they are getting a wise support from the Board of State Charities.

Hon. Oscar Craig, of New York.— The statements that have been

made here are very suggestive. One can but be responsive to them, especially to those of the paper, which seems to me the most comprehensive and exhaustive as well as concise presentation of the subject that could well be made. I have just been requested to respond on behalf of our State Board of Charities of New York. Our Board is organized upon the general principles that underlie most of the State Boards. We have, however, other and more conditions to deal with than some other State Boards, especially in large cities and centres of population. But our Board is in some respects not so comprehensive in its jurisdiction of subjects as are the Boards of some other States. It does not include prisons or jails. I want to say right here that the jails in New York are the worst institutions that we have. They are, as has been well said, hot-beds of crime. While there are exceptions, that is the general proposition. On the other hand, the jurisdiction of our State Board includes reformatories, houses of refuge, and State industrial schools, in all of which great improvements have been made during the last few years. It also includes all private eleemosynary institutions, with powers and duties, in respect of these private institutions, similar to those which it exercises respecting public institutions. In this point the New York Board is clothed with authority greater than that of many other State Boards. We have not only the power of visitation, but the power to put witnesses under oath, in all the institutions of our jurisdiction. In general, our powers are not executive, but are simply supervisory. I agree with the paper in the recommendation that State Boards should have few, if any, executive functions. I disagree entirely with the gentleman from Wisconsin. It may be well, as he suggests, not to have the chief executive of the State a member of the Board; but I do not concur with him in the proposition that a State Board ought to have power to veto the governor. That may do in Wisconsin, but not in New York. I am pleased with the suggestion that the influence should be chiefly moral and private. That is the rule of our Board. While we do get into contests sometimes, in our large State they are the exceptions. Where we have one contention with a local board, we bring about reforms by persuasion in a hundred cases. We are all the time operating that way in many places of our field. When it comes to the point that we are obliged, in the interests of the institution, to do more, we have the courage of our convictions. There have been cases in which we have felt it was our duty to publish abuses or evils. It is further our duty to express our opinions on bills for special appropriations to State institutions. The legislature has voted against our opinions sometimes; but I do not think of an instance where there has been time for experience or fuller information that we have not been justified, and that our opposition has not been verified.

The main exceptions to the general fact that our Board exercises supervisory rather than executive or administrative powers are two; namely, its authority and action under the alien pauper law and

under the State pauper law. These laws clothe the Board or its secretary with authority to return paupers from foreign lands, and from other States of our own country, who have not acquired a settlement in our State, to their respective homes or the places from which they came.

There was another exception which has just been abrogated. Under the Willard Asylum Act, passed in 1865, it was made the duty of the counties to send their pauper and indigent insane to State institutions. But the legislature subsequently failed to make adequate provisions, and in 1871 gave our State Board power to exempt counties from the operation of the Willard Asylum Act, and to revoke such exemptions. Evils grew up under these two laws, on account of the crowded conditions of the State institutions. In consequence, our Board became powerless. Its legal power to revoke exemptions was not under the facts an actual power which could be exercised. In other respects, its nominal as well as its actual powers were less than the powers of the State Board of Wisconsin. I understand the care of the insane in Wisconsin is, in effect, not county care, but State care. In Wisconsin the State Board of Charities has power to veto or control county buildings. Any building must be in accordance with the plans of the Board. So the maintenance of the inmates depends on the discretion of the Board of Charities. The State appropriation for the part maintenance of any county institution depends on the certificate of the State Board that the institution has come up to the proper standard of care; and they have the power to remove not only to State institutions, but from one county to another. That is a complicated system of State care.

Mr. ELMORE.— County care under State supervision.

Mr. CRAIG.— I call it more than that. I call it constructively an administration by the State Board. The question came up whether we would have the old county care or something like this Wisconsin system, with the difference that the trustees should be appointed by the Supreme Court, or State care pure and simple. Our Board was divided. Some of our most enlightened and most progressive members were not prepared to take the proposition of simple State care. But, with other members, I was prepared to make the trial. One year ago, a law was passed, creating a State Commission in Lunacy, with all the powers of the old Commissioner in Lunacy and some of the powers of our Board and other powers (chap. 283 of the Laws of 1889). The passage of this law was advocated by me and both the other members of the Standing Committee on the Insane of our Board and by other members of our Board. With similar advocacy by members of our committee and our Board, and on the intercession of the new Commission in Lunacy, the bill introduced by the State Charities Aid Association in the year 1888, for the exclusive State care of the pauper and indigent insane, which passed the Senate, but not the Assembly, in 1889, was this year duly enacted.

Thus our Board has been relieved of certain executive and admin-

istrative functions, and the insane have been remanded to State institutions by the combined operation of these two laws, each of which is to my mind gratifying and most acceptable as a fair provisional remedy to be fairly tried.

The great service which our former president, Mr. Letchworth, has done in the care not only of children, but also of the insane, has been fitly crowned by his recent book on the "Insane in Foreign Countries."

One word as to orphan asylums. Within a few years there has been a law passed preventing the incorporation of any orphan asylum without the certificate of our Board, and this new power is always exercised after full investigation.

Our Board is constituted of eleven appointed members from the eight respective judicial districts and four *ex-officio* members; namely, the State Governor, the Secretary of State, the Comptroller, and the Attorney-General. It is organized with the following officers: namely, president, vice-president, secretary, and assistant secretary. The secretaries, who are not members, are paid. The annual salary of the secretary is $3,500, and that of the assistant secretary $2,500. I wish to state only one thing further. It happened some years ago to be proposed that the salary of the secretary should be raised to four or five thousand dollars. So soon as our secretary heard of that, he went before the Legislative Committee, and said he would not accept such increase. I think that fact fairly illustrates the unselfish character and conduct of the paid officers as well as the members of the State Board of Charities of New York.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.— I was present at that hearing, and can testify to the fact given by Mr. Craig with reference to the secretary of our State Board. I think that fact speaks for itself.

Dr. A. R. MOULTON, of Boston.— Mr. Wines, in his admirable paper, spoke of the secondary importance of visiting almshouses. I must differ from him in that respect. I would place the inspection of almshouses, both county and town, as of the most vital importance. I am led to that conviction because of the condition of affairs in Massachusetts and elsewhere. The condition of the insane in our hospitals is passed upon by two competent physicians before they are sent there. They are committed by a magistrate who has to examine into the case, and who has to see the patients or express in writing the reason for not examining them. After being sent to the hospital, they are seen by the inspector, their commitment papers are examined by that official, and they are frequently conferred with. Monthly, usually, the trustees see them; and they are under the care of kind, conscientious, and efficient physicians. The hospitals are crowded, and there is no probability of patients being detained there longer than is proper. On the other hand, patients are taken into the almshouse who have never had the benefit of treatment. They are seldom visited by friends and not often by the overseers of the poor. I have found almshouses into which the overseers of the poor

had not entered for more than a year. In many cases, the patients are in filth and degradation; and in some cases they are suffering with acute insanity. Therefore, I claim that it is of vital importance that this class should have the benefit of frequent visitation from State Boards and religious and charitable associations.

While we are hearing about foreign missionary work, I would suggest that one of the grandest fields for home missionary work exists in our town and county almshouses. We have in Massachusetts 208 almshouses; and there are over 700 insane patients confined therein, some of whom are receiving good care, but many of whom are miserably cared for. The tendency of the State is to put them all under State supervision, making them wards of the State. One gentleman here remarked that in his State there were many sane people in the hospitals. If so, they should at once be removed. I think, however, that the hospital should have its champion; and I am willing to stand as the champion of the hospital. I have had an experience of fourteen years in the actual care of the insane. During that time, over five thousand new cases have passed through my hands; and I have never known but one individual to be committed to the hospital by intrigue. Mistakes have been made. I have known a patient suffering from the delirium of typhoid fever to be committed. I have known patients in a comatose state to be committed. But that was a mistake, not an impropriety under the circumstances, and was immediately rectified. The one exceptional case was that of a lawyer, who feigned insanity to avoid a law-suit, and who got himself committed. His proper condition and circumstances were detected, and he was turned over to the custody of the court by the superintendent within a week.

Another gentleman spoke of the importance of having the State charities above politics. He said that the State charities of Ohio know no politics. If he would allow me to make one suggestion, it would be that he concentrate his powers and the powers of his Board on freeing his hospitals from politics. It is a well-known fact that the hospitals of Ohio are bound down by politics, and that their usefulness is very much cramped. Very recently one of their best men has been deposed. I happen to know that the condition of another superintendent is hanging in the balance.

Dr. Byers.— Will the gentleman allow me a word? He speaks now of the action of local boards of trustees, over whose official action we have no executive or administrative authority. That is not in any sense a matter that we can control. We do the best we can. Such political interference with institutions is done in spite of the Board of State Charities, and we are not responsible.

Dr. Moulton.— With reference to putting the quiet insane in families, of great importance is the selection of the household. They should not be placed in families having small children. While we have the interest of the insane at heart, we also want to protect the sane and to surround children with healthy influences. The

system, to be successful, depends upon the frequent visitation of the patients. The insane should not be placed in families, and left there with the expectation that all will go well. They must be frequently visited by some practical person. States which have the whole control of the indigent insane can wisely use this system. The fact that the local overseers of the poor in Massachusetts have control of the indigent insane who have settlements, when discharged from the hospitals, has interfered very much with the success of the boarding out system; and, while it has come to stay there, it cannot do its best work until the State has the control of the indigent insane. When an overseer of the poor is told that a certain individual in the hospital would be benefited by boarding in a family, he may respond by taking the patient to his almshouse. If the State had full control of this class, instead of having one hundred and thirty in families, we might have three hundred so cared for.

John R. Elder, of the State Board of Indiana, said that their Board had been in existence about a year, and he thought a great deal of good had been accomplished in that time. He hoped that at least five thousand copies of the report by Mr. Wines might be circulated in States having no such Board.

Mrs. V. T. Smith, of the State Board of Connecticut, said that there had been a great improvement in the almshouses of her State. They are now visited every year, and sometimes semi-annually. She was glad to hear the report of one State, that children under twelve years of age were to be excluded from reformatories.

Judge Jordan, of Indiana, said that no child should be sent to a State reformatory. He thought that no State Board should interfere with institutions which are doing good work. So far as Indiana is concerned, the institutions are in perfect harmony with the State Board.

Miss E. C. PUTNAM, of Boston.— In inspecting institutions, should not the persons inspecting pass judgment on the results rather than on the methods employed?

Mr. WINES.— No doubt about that.

Miss PUTNAM.— It seems to me that it is an excellent thing for a supervising board to send a written statement to each institution about two months before the annual report is made up by the supervising board, so that the trustees or officers of each institution may have an opportunity to consider carefully the suggestions made by the supervising board, and may have time to state their reasons for adopting or for not adopting these, as they see fit. Certainly, a State Board is a very much needed institution. I have worked for ten years as trustee of the reform schools of Massachusetts, and I know the State Board can be of the greatest aid to institutions; but no person should be appointed on such a Board who is not willing to give a good deal of time to inspecting, in a sympathetic manner, every institution which the Board is called upon to examine and report upon. I think every State Board should have certain execu-

tive powers, in order to keep children out of institutions by providing for them in private families.

We have in Massachusetts, in the Lyman School, about one hundred and ninety boys, in Lancaster, from eighty to a hundred girls, and those are all the children in the care of the State who are in reform schools. There would have been more boys and girls in these schools if the State Board had not had executive power to attend courts and make other provision for juvenile offenders.

Mr. Rosenau asked if there were not some way by which the reports of State Boards could be made more accessible. He thought there should be a way devised by which they could be easily secured for libraries.

Mr. John H. Finley, of the New York State Charities Aid Association, was asked to speak.

Mr. Finley.— Dr. Aschrott, whose name is known to this Conference, notes as one of the most apparent movements in the administration of poor relief in the United States the centralization of official oversight or control of local relief.

This movement is one that should have general encouragement, and its extension is noted with approval. There is need, and an imperative need, of responsible, systematized official service. But such service, it is believed, whatever the constitution or *personnel* of the Central Boards, should be supplemented by *local*, *unofficial interest* and *inspection*, if it is to be promotive of the highest efficiency in the administration of relief and of the speediest and surest remedy of abuses and evils.

The limitations of official service in general, it may be said, are appreciated, and not least by officials themselves. Official forms, official etiquette, and official grooves cannot in the nature of things be avoided. Official duties are liable to become perfunctory, and the service to deteriorate, unless subject to scrutiny from without. These latter objections may not obtain with respect to official inspection of official service, and, I may add, are not likely to when such men and women as are at present found in most of the Boards are appointed. But the members of these Boards are not less subject to these limitations. Recommendations from official inspectors can issue only through fixed channels, and reach the people indirectly through their representatives. And, while it is natural that the public law-makers should thus be advised of reforms which are deemed necessary by the official Board, it is to be remembered that only those laws which have behind them an intelligent and strong public sentiment are effectually enforced. The cultivation of such a sentiment is not a work which an official body can undertake, except as such an end is promoted through its reports, which usually appear at distant intervals. It is in this direction that unofficial voluntary effort can most advantageously supplement official supervision and contribute to upright and

just administration. And it is this need that has given rise to the State Charities Aid Association of New York, which I have the honor and the pleasure to represent in this Conference.

This Association was organized in 1872. Its objects are: 1. The improvement of the mental, moral, and physical condition of the inmates of all public charitable institutions in the State, and in particular of State institutions, county poorhouses, and city almshouses. 2. To induce the adoption, by the community at large, of such measures in the organization and administration of both public and private charity as may develop the self-respect and increase the power of self-support of the poorer classes of society.

To these ends the Association shall co-operate, as far as may be thought practicable, with the State Board of Charities, to which it shall make an annual report.

The Association — a volunteer body, supported by private means — is constituted as follows: —

1. Central Association, from which the officers and managers, the Executive Board, and the Student Committees are selected,

2. Visiting committees in the several counties of the State.

The Standing Student Committees are four in number, as follows: on children, on adult or able-bodied paupers, on hospitals, on finance. Special committees are appointed as need in any special line may require. There are at present three special committees: on postal savings-banks, on reform of charities of New York City, and on legislation for the insane. The work of these committees, as indicated in their name, is the study of questions appertaining to these several subjects. These committees are also active in procuring reforms legislative and otherwise, which their study and investigation have recommended (always, of course, with the approval of the Executive Board).

2. Volunteer visitation is the essential and characteristic feature of the Association, discovering abuses and evils where they exist, giving practical aid in the application of remedies, and not least (and I thank the reverend gentleman who spoke to you yesterday for his good words) in bringing somewhat of cheer and brightness into those lives whose boundaries are the walls of an institution.

The visitors, under an act of the legislature of 1881, receive powers of entrance to the poorhouses and almshouses within their several counties from Supreme Judges of the State. The reports of their inspection from time to time are sent to the central office, and are laid before the Student Committees.

This dual nature of the Association in its constitution, bringing into helpful alliance the observations, experience, and the direct remedial efforts of the Visiting Committees, and the wider investigations and the counsel of the Student Committees, permits the most effectual pursuance of the objects which the Association has in view. Methods and principles of relief to which the experience of other communities and States has given approval have a means of practical

application, or at least of wider acquaintance, while the reports of inspection and study in this immediate field become in turn contributions of more or less value to the infant science of charity.

The activity of the Association has directed itself notably along three lines: —

First, the improvement of the condition of those inmates of the institution under its inspection.

Second, in the promotion of organization in relief in the smaller as well as larger communities of the State, and of discrimination in the administration of relief on the part of poor officials.

Third, a separate provision for the different classes of the public dependants.

As to results achieved, I beg to note the following: —

1. It gave assistance to the State Board in procuring the passage of the children's law in 1875, removing children from the poorhouses and from the association of paupers.

2. In 1880 it was instrumental in enacting the tramp law, forbidding the commitment of tramps and vagrants by magistrates to poorhouses.

Among special results are the following: the establishment of the Bellevue Hospital Training School for Nurses, New York City, 1872; the formation of a committee to supply hospitals, asylums, poorhouses, prisons, life-saving stations, etc., with books and newspapers, Feb. 1, 1874; the initiation of the movement for Tenement House Reform in New York City, 1879; the formation of the Society for Instruction in First Aid to the Injured, 1882–83; the passage of the Act restricting the Imprisonment of Witnesses, 1883; the establishment of Working-girls' Clubs, 1884–85; a special course of training in the care of the insane, given to six graduates of the Bellevue Training School in the Kings County Insane Asylum, 1885; the passage of the Act providing for the Establishment of Municipal Lodging Houses in New York City, 1886; the establishment, through county committees, of three temporary homes for children.

The experience of the Association warrants me in expressing the hope that in other States this volunteer work will be undertaken and vigorously carried on. Organized private charity is supplementing in a most successful manner public giving, and there is a like opportunity of usefulness for private activity in other departments of relief: in securing to the public wards proper care and treatment; in preventing the mal-administration of poor-funds; in aiding official boards in procuring legislative reforms, etc. The reports which have come to us from several of the States demonstrate the need of such aid to official inspection, of such encouragement to honesty and efficiency in local poor relief; while the work of the State Charities Aid Association of New York, and of that of New Jersey, shows that such plan of activity is entirely feasible.

The following resolution, offered by A. E. Elmore, was read, and referred to the Committee on Business: —

Resolved, That the establishment of a State Board of Charities in each State where none exists is a matter of great importance, and that we cordially invite every such State to take steps to secure the appointment of such a Board.

The following resolution, offered by C. D. Kellogg, was read, and referred to the Committee on Business: —

Resolved, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction recommend to all the higher institutions of learning, including colleges and theological, legal, and medical schools, to add to their usual courses of study information as to organized charity, prison reform, and other branches of social science, illustrated by visits to public and private charitable and correctional institutions, and actual investigations of the dwellings and conditions of the poor, and that the Secretary of this Conference be requested to take such steps as are practicable to bring this recommendation to the attention of the educational institutions above named.

An invitation to visit the Maryland Penitentiary on Sunday afternoon was read, and accepted with the thanks of the Conference.

A letter from J. Loomis Gould, of Alaska, expressing regret at his inability to attend the Conference, was read. A letter of similar purport was read from John Wilson Rhodes, M.D., of Manchester, England.

Adjourned at 12 M.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

Monday night, May 19.

The Conference met at eight o'clock, the President in the chair.

The following resolution, offered by N. S. Rosenau, was read, and referred to the Committee on Business: —

Resolved, That the practice now obtaining among certain denominations in New York and other States of setting apart the second Sunday in June as children's day be recommended by this Conference to all churches in every State of the Union, with the suggestion that on that day, in addition to children's services and celebrations, the pastor preach upon the duty of the Church to make the cause of all children her own cause, especially the disinherited children of poverty, disease, and crime.

The Committee on Business reported through the chairman, C. D. Kellogg, three resolutions for adoption,— that with reference to State Boards (page 421), one with reference to the higher institutions of learning (page 421), and one with reference to an annual Children's Sunday (page 421).

A statement with reference to the publishing of the Proceedings was made by Hon. W. P. Letchworth, Treasurer of the Conference.

The order for the evening was then taken up, the "Care of Dependent Children," under the charge of the Chairman of the Committee, Hon. W. P. Letchworth.

Mr. Letchworth.— The subject which has been assigned to the Committee on Dependent Children appeals very strongly to our sympathies, and is as extended as are the interests of mankind. In every country and among all peoples we find children who, through the improvidence, selfishness, or brutishness of those who should protect them, are deprived of food and shelter, and who, if it were not for the aid afforded by those benevolent organizations which have their foundation in our love of humanity, would perish, or through neglect become an element in social degradation. It is a subject as inexhaustible as the plans of philanthropy are varied, and cannot be disposed of by any one of our Conferences.

In former meetings it has been found that too little time was allowed for a full discussion of the papers; and the Committee on Dependent Children has therefore decided to make no formal report, but to allow the fullest opportunity possible for discussion and interchange of views.

Three papers will be presented by the committee. One, entitled "Methods of Caring for Dependent Children at Home and Abroad," will be read by Miss Elizabeth C. Putnam, whose laborious and successful work in behalf of dependent and erring children, under the sanction of the Massachusetts Board of Lunacy and Charity, is widely known. From her large experience in Massachusetts and her extended observations abroad, the Conference will gather valuable information.

A work which is now widely extending, and which has been attended with the happiest results, is that known as "Country Week." It brings to enfeebled children of the city freshness and recuperation that come from summer life in the country. A paper on this theme will be read to you by Miss Ellen H. Bailey, of Boston, Mass., who is personally identified with this commendable work in that city.

At our meeting last year Mr. Randall, the founder of the Michigan State School for Dependent Children, gave us a clear and interesting illustration of the great work carried on at Coldwater, which is still largely directed by the self-sacrificing services of its original founder. Those who listened to Mr. Randall's very excellent paper last year will be interested in the illustration that will be given by Mr. Hathaway, secretary of the Ohio State Convention of Children's Homes, on the Ohio county system of caring for dependent children. The Ohio system and the Michigan system are in marked contrast, and Mr. Hathaway's paper will doubtless present some points for profitable discussion.

A paper on "Dependent and Delinquent Children in this Country and Abroad" was read by Miss E. C. Putnam, of Boston, Mass. (page 190).

A paper on "Country Homes for Dependent Children" was read by Miss Ellen H. Bailey, of Boston, Mass. (page 202).

A paper on "Children's Homes in Ohio" was read by S. J. Hathaway, of Columbus, Ohio (page 208).

Mr. John Glenn, of Baltimore, asked that Mrs. C. C. Barnwell, of Baltimore, might be asked to speak of her work for crippled children.

Mrs. Barnwell said that the work that she had voluntarily undertaken had assumed proportions that she had never dreamed of when she first undertook it. The work had its origin in her own sufferings from spinal disease. She had been restored to health and strength by Dr. Sayres's well-known method of plaster of Paris jackets in the removable form. For six years she has been devoting herself to helpless cripple children. Her surgical knowledge has been gained by study and practice. The different bands of "King's Daughters," colored and white, work with her; and the "King's Sons" are ready to help in caring for the little boys. Four years ago a dispensary was opened for the reception of patients who come for daily treatment. A competent physician examines each case, and the jackets are applied only with his approval. Sixty-eight cases have been treated within six years. Of these, five were cured without deformity. Six mothers have been taught how to make and apply the jackets. Five children have died, and thirty-two are at present under treatment. A school has been started in connection with the surgical treatment, and eight scholars are now in training. The mental and moral education has been of great help. This is noticed in quicker obedience, better observation, self-reliance, and cheerfulness. The parents of the patients contribute what they can afford for the care of the children; but the main support is from private sources. The children are those that could not and would not be helped in any other way. The work is indorsed by the various charitable societies of Baltimore.

Mr. Joseph Merrefield, of the Manual Labor School of Baltimore, said that he wished to speak of that work, which had been going on for fifty years. Nineteen-twentieths of the boys are apprenticed to farmers, and the first one put out to a farmer had yet to be heard from who had found his way into the penitentiary. The legislature of Maryland has passed an act to contribute to the support of the school. The farmer is required to deposit ten dollars a year in the savings-bank to the credit of every boy that he takes from this school. They are apprenticed till they are eighteen.

Dr. W. T. Harris, Commissioner of Education, Washington, D.C., was invited to speak.

Dr. HARRIS.— This body is held in honor throughout the world, because it has investigated the best methods of helping the weaklings of society. The best help is that which develops self-help. Other kinds of help may have the effect of increasing the dependence of the weak class and make the weak only weaker. We have heard to-night of methods of helping dependent children. The various schemes presented all have this in common: they restore to the child who is deprived of a home the surroundings and influences of good home life, and this potent instrumentality is enough to save him. This Association has, during its many years of conference, devised improved methods of dealing with the dependent classes, so that now charity need not waste its funds on what only increases the evil it would remedy.

As I have sat here this evening, reflecting on the great good this society has accomplished, I have been thinking about that note of alarm that has been sounded within a few months by sensational people who have an idea that crime is increasing out of proportion to our population.

Notwithstanding the labors of this Conference and its branches in every city, with their effect in rendering more efficient the application of the increasing volume of money contributed for the proper care of the three weakling classes, it is thought that crime is increasing at a rapid rate.

This association desires to stop the producing causes of crime, pauperism, and insanity by a timely application of the remedies to the children of the three classes of weaklings,— the weaklings in intellect, who may become insane; the weaklings in morals, who may become criminal; and the weaklings in industry and thrift, who may become paupers. As we see by the essays that have been read to-night, it aims to restore a good home influence to the outcast and to the unfortunate. But, after all that has been done, we hear that crime increases,— in the midst of the influences of our school systems and in the midst of missionary work on the part of the churches, such work as the world has not seen before. For our churches go out and found their missions in the slums of our cities, and there never before was so much home missionary work done as is done now.

But, we inquire, of what nature is this increase in crime? Is it merely an increase of vigilance on the part of our police or an increase in the efficiency of our courts? Does it mean, in short, that there is an increase of convictions for crime, while crime itself has not increased?

Or, rather, is it not the fact that certain forms of vice which were formerly winked at are now counted as crimes and actually punished as such? An examination of the records of crime for the past year has been made in Massachusetts, with the result of showing precisely the opposite state of affairs which our alarmists have claimed.

It is found that the alleged increase of crime is, in fact, an increase of arrests for intemperance. Now, we know that there was a time

when it was considered a mark of good fellowship to drink to excess and to show the influence of liquor. The totally abstinent was considered a mean, selfish prig. In how many parts of the country is this still the feeling? In Massachusetts, the commitments for intemperance were only 3,341 in 1856, while in 1885 they were 18,707, or five and a half times as many. On the other hand, the commitments for crimes against person and property had in the twenty-five years previous to 1885 decreased forty-four per cent. This takes the sting out of the statistics. Person and property are becoming more safe, it is evident. The increase in arrests is due to a more sensitive public opinion, bent on removing intemperance, one of the great sources of evil.

The statistics of the Detroit House of Correction for the first twenty-five years of its existence were published the year before last. 40,338 had been committed in that period. Of these, 28,652 could both read and write, or seventy per cent. of the entire number. Thirty per cent. could not write. We are told that this reveals the fact that the schools furnish the great majority of the criminals. But, in order to see what a fraction means, it is necessary to know its denominator as well as its numerator. How large, we inquire, is the illiterate population of Michigan which furnishes this thirty per cent. of criminals? We are informed in reply that the ninety-five per cent. of the population who can read and write furnish seventy per cent. of the criminals, and the five per cent. who cannot read and write furnish thirty per cent. Our ratio is therefore seventy ninety-fifths to thirty fifths, or as one to eight. The illiterate stratum of the population furnishes eight times its quota to the House of Correction.

This report gives statistics, also, regarding previous religious training; namely, 18,821 had received Catholic religious instruction, and 19,184 had received Protestant religious instruction, and 2,249 had received no religious instruction.

The hysterical writers would tell us that the churches are filling our prisons; that ninety-five per cent. of the committals to the Detroit House of Correction are from those who have received religious instruction, while only five per cent. are from those who received no instruction in religion.

But we at once reply: The doctrines of religion are the best of all doctrines to prevent crime. For they teach unselfishness, and obedience to divine and human laws. We demand the denominators of these fractions. The numerators are respectively ninety-five and five. But, if a census were taken of the population of Michigan, the number of people who had received no religious instruction would be found to be not more than half of one per cent. This half of one per cent. furnished five per cent., or ten times its quota, for the jail.

The jails it is known have a larger proportion of illiterate than the penitentiaries. In the year 1888 there were thirty penitentiaries in twenty-four States reporting 19,444 prisoners, of whom 5,504 were illiterate. In the twenty-four States included, the percentage of illiterates was eleven; and this eleven per cent. furnished twenty-

eight per cent. of the prisoners, or three and one quarter times its quota.

Education, religious, intellectual, moral, and manual, is the only means yet discovered that is sure to increase self-help. All other means may prove to have the effect of undermining self-help and producing dependence on charity.

Colonel W. F. Beasley, of North Carolina, told a touching story of a little colored girl who had been under Mrs. Barnwell's care. He spoke also of the colored orphanages of the South, and expressed his belief that all the children of the country should be taught the English language and loyalty to the government of the United States.

Mrs. V. T. Smith, of Connecticut.— I indorse Miss Putnam's paper; and I think the "Country Week" is a capital idea, only it should be six weeks. That is what we do in Connecticut. We have a good many children who go into farmers' families, and are taken good care of for five or six weeks in the summer. For the sick children we have a sanitarium. I think Connecticut has an excellent way in collecting money from families toward the support of their children, when they are separated from them. In that way we collected last year about $3,000 for the support of children in good Christian families. I believe that every man and woman who have a child of their own should support it; and, if they are not worthy to support it in their own family, they should pay for its support in good families so far as they can. You would be surprised to see how well that plan works. You would be surprised to see the men who walk into my house to pay for their children's expenses who are put out to board. I think this whole subject of the care of children should come at the beginning of the Conference instead of near the close, for it is such an important subject. Do not let us have any foundling asylums. Do not let us have any infant asylums. Put the babies into Christian families, where they will have good care. Let us have everywhere what we have in Connecticut, women visitors in every town to visit the children that are put in different towns. There is no end to the possibilities of our taking care of little children. Let us take such care of them as we would want given to our own children if we were lying dead in our graves.

Adjourned at 11 P.M.

TWELFTH SESSION.

Tuesday morning, May 20.

The Conference met at 10 A.M., Vice-President Craig in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. Mr. Frissel, of Hampton, Va.

Colonel A. H. Hogeland, of the Employment Association, Lincoln,

Neb., made a statement of the work of that Association, which is "to obtain homes and employment for all homeless children, especially truant, tramping, and neglected boys and youth."

The order for the day, "The Care of the Insane," was taken up. The report of the committee was read by the chairman, Dr. Richard Gundry, of Maryland (page 253).

The chairman of the Committee on the Commitment and Detention of the Insane, Dr. Stephen Smith, of New York, having been called home, his paper was read only by title, and referred to the Publication Committee.

DISCUSSION ON INSANITY.

A. O. WRIGHT, of Wisconsin.— I thank Dr. Gundry for what he has said in relation to the chronic insane asylum of Wisconsin, and I want to pay a tribute to him for what he has done for our State hospitals in Wisconsin. After the session of this Conference in St. Paul, Dr. Gundry visited some of our institutions, including the State Hospital for Insane, near Madison; and, while there, he talked with the superintendent and some members of the governing board, and persuaded them that it was entirely practicable for them to do what they already wanted to do,— adopt the system of non-restraint. From his own experience of many years in carrying on a hospital without mechanical restraint, he showed them how it could be done, and explained the necessary details of management. The State Hospital was at once put under the system of non-restraint, and has so been carried on ever since. And the Northern Hospital for the Insane, following that example, has been gradually reducing the amount of restraint until to-day it also is virtually on the non-restraint basis, though it does not call itself a non-restraint hospital. The third hospital, in Milwaukee,— we have three for acute cases,— has always been a non-restraint hospital, so that to-day Wisconsin is substantially on the basis of non-restraint in the management of the insane; and for that result we have largely to thank Dr. Gundry.

Rev. ALEXANDER PROUDFIT, D.D., of Baltimore.— I have been exceedingly interested in the whole report; and I wish to speak of one or two features of it, and one point is the commitment of the insane. I have been a pastor for more than twenty-seven years, and in the course of that time I have seen a great many cases of insanity. In one of my charges, among the quiet hills of New Jersey, insanity developed in one of the families. The patient was the mother of a lovely family of children, all bright; and she herself was one of the loveliest women in all the town. I saw the shadow coming over her; and I spoke to the other members of the family, and begged them, as they loved her, to have her put under treatment. They could not bring themselves to do it. But presently she attempted her own life; and at last one sad day we gathered round her grave in the cemetery,

and it was all over. Her daughter has since become insane; but they promptly put her under treatment, and in the course of a few months she was sufficiently restored to be released. She has written me the most touching letters since, and she gives evidence of being reasonably restored. I wish, therefore, to call attention to the importance of early treatment. My observation is that there is a very foolish and injurious prejudice existing on the part of the community at large with regard to this subject. People feel that there is a stigma put upon them, if they put their dear ones in an asylum. The consequence is that the matter is hushed up, and the patient is kept out of sight till some sudden outbreak, when there is little hope of restoration. We cannot do a better service to the insane person than to put him promptly under the proper kind of treatment. There is a great deal of attention being called just now to the unjust seclusion of patients. We ought to be very careful about this. The law should be very stringent and yet very wise. I knew of a gentleman who was committed to an asylum, and was afterward taken out on a writ of *habeas corpus*, and brought before the court. The court was entirely satisfied that the man had been unjustly sent to the asylum, and was about to discharge him, when the physician of the hospital said to the counsel, Ask him such a question. This was done, and the result at once revealed his insanity.

Dr. A. R. MOULTON.— It has been asked whether proper families can be found for boarding out patients. There has been no trouble in Massachusetts in getting suitable families; and I have a large number of applicants waiting, who cannot understand why there are not more patients that they can have. The motive of these people is to get boarders; and it is all folly to talk about pure philanthropy in this matter. There is some philanthropy, yet a greater financial consideration. But why should not these people be paid for their trouble? The only case of ill-treatment that I have known was in one instance where the lady of the house made a pretence of loving her boarders. I had to remove those patients. Dr. Gundry thinks the patients who are boarded out should have been a long time in the hospital. I think the law should be so framed that any patients susceptible of improvement by this system should have the advantages of it. We all know that patients sometimes come to a standstill, when the physician would be glad to avail himself of a different method of treatment. He should not be limited to those cases which have become chronic. The rates of board can be arranged according to the conditions and usefulness of the patient. A high rate of board need not be paid. For the board of some of the patients in Massachusetts nothing is paid, they are so useful; and they are not overworked nor ill-treated. For others, the State pays from a dollar and a quarter to two dollars a week. In most cases, however, the full rate is paid. Regarding the treatment of incipient insanity, I think the voluntary commitment law meets that very well in the better classes,— that is, the more intelligent classes. They come to the

hospital, and are received on signing an application that they wish treatment. Ignorant people do not do this, excepting those who have been once insane, and who have recovered under treatment. Feeling a return of their old ailment, they sometimes come voluntarily for treatment. But a difficulty arises here. Many of these patients are supported by the town, and the overseers of the poor usually refuse to pay the board of patients unless they are judicially committed. Thus they are deprived of the advantages of early treatment; and their disease, through the mistaken motives of the overseers, is allowed to go on and develop.

Dr. HURD.— How many patients are boarded out in Massachusetts?

Dr. MOULTON.— At present one hundred and thirty. We board out a good many private patients.

Dr. HURD.— What do you call full board?

Dr. MOULTON.— $3.25 a week.

Dr. BYERS.— That includes the philanthropy.

Dr. MOULTON.— It includes clothing and food. We have to support our patients for $3.25 a week, including food, care, and clothes.

Hon. CADWALADER BIDDLE, of Pennsylvania.— In a late visit to one of our largest hospitals for the insane in Pennsylvania, I asked the superintendent if he could furnish me a list of the patients under his charge who were never inquired after in any way by their former friends. He said it would take some time to prepare such a list. It seems to me an important matter that we should insist upon those who send their relatives and friends to these institutions taking some active interest in their behalf. I should like to ask Dr. Gundry what proportion of patients admitted to his hospital are never inquired after.

Dr. GUNDRY.— That would be an exceedingly difficult question to answer. The proportion grows larger every year. The people who inquire for friends drop off. Many are unable to visit their friends in the hospital, the distance is so great.

Mr. BIDDLE.— It has always seemed to me that Mr. Elmore might make out a strong case for his county hospitals from the fact that the patients are among familiar faces and scenes. Friends can more easily visit them.

Dr. W. W. GODDING, of Washington, D.C.— I want to impress the necessity of having plenty of land in connection with these State institutions for the insane. In many States, where it may not be possible to obtain a distinct institution for epileptics, you may at least have your epileptic family; and you want ample grounds for this. In buying ground for a State insane hospital, it should be bought on the supposition that it will eventually have a thousand inmates, and the ground should comprise one acre for each inmate. A thousand acres can easily be purchased when a hospital is first projected, and that land will always advance in value. I wish to

enforce the point that, whatever admirable regulations you may make, it is, after all, the individual who conducts the hospital who will be most responsible and most the source of its success. I waited to hear our worthy President speak of another point, one that I fear I must characterize as the Ohio idea,— the frequent change of superintendents in Ohio. Dr. Richardson, one of the most progressive young men of Ohio,— one who has been carrying on his institution with the most eminent success,— has just been requested to resign. What private reason they may have had for doing it I know not; but it seems to me that this Conference, representing different political sentiments, might unite in some such resolution as this: —

Resolved, That politics do not belong in our State institutions.

Dr. Byers.— We people in Ohio feel that very much, and regret it very deeply. I will ask you to take a rising vote on that resolution.

The resolution was unanimously adopted by a rising vote.

Mr. Wines.— I have only a word to say. The paper of Dr. Gundry was an admirable summary of the actual condition of the most advanced thought of this country on the care of the insane and of the steps by which we have arrived at our present opinions and practices. The care and treatment of the insane have advanced just in proportion as people have more clearly seen the truth of one great principle; namely, that we are bound to give to them the largest possible measure of liberty. I say the "largest possible" liberty, because some insane patients can have no freedom at all, while others can have as much freedom as you or I. Between those two extremes there is an infinite range of varying conditions. All the changes in which we rejoice have been changes in the direction of giving more freedom to the insane than it was supposed possible to grant them a hundred or fifty, or even twenty, years ago. This change has come about partly by the experience of men in charge of institutions, but still more largely through the pressure brought to bear upon them by the common sense of people outside of institutions. But the sentiment of the superintendents of institutions in this country and abroad has undergone a wonderful transformation in the course of the last fifty or even twenty-five years. I think I am a very conservative man. My friends never charge me with being too radical on any question. But I am going to venture the remark that, while the change that has already taken place has been in the direction of a larger measure of freedom to the patients in institutions, the coming reform which will arise out of the advance of civilization and intelligence will be an increase in the amount of freedom from institutions. I want to be understood. I do not want to be misquoted. I do not believe that any considerable number of persons not insane have ever been sent to our hospitals for the insane. Neither do I believe, with here and there perhaps an exception, that any superin-

tendent has retained persons whom he ought to have discharged by reason of improper, unworthy, personal motives. But I do believe that our hospitals are imposed upon, that patients are sent to them who should not be so sent, because their friends wish to avoid the responsibility of keeping and caring for them at home. I believe many are retained in asylums who might be discharged in their own interest and in that of humanity. I do not know how to pick them out, and I cast no opprobrium on institution management which it does not deserve; but I believe that the time will come when superintendents will be more anxious to send out into the free world the patients who have been committed to their care than they are now. I think that the direction in which public thought should move; and I ask your sober, deliberate, calm, dispassionate judgment of this suggestion. In twenty-five years, its justice and force will be apparent to many who cannot see it now.

Mr. Isaac P. Wright, of Minnesota, asked that Rev. L. P. Powers, of Minneapolis, might be asked to speak.

Dr. Byers.— A man of that name ought to be able to speak right out.

Mr. Powers.— I wish that something might be said to break down the undue superstition concerning insane persons. This Conference has asked the preachers from time to time to set aside a Sunday for prisons, a Sunday for children, etc. This subject of educating people as to the care of the insane is in the same line. Is there not a way in which the Conference can ask the educators to do along their line what we have been asking the preachers to do on theirs? I heartily second the suggestion that the ministers should do what they can in behalf of prisoners and children, and hope that the popular mind may be so educated as to make people willing to be treated for insanity.

Gen. Brinkerhoff.—We have in Ohio an arrangement by which the superintendent of an asylum may permit patients to go out on parole to their friends. The law permits that. They may remain for such time as is desirable, and then be returned for recommitment, or they may be discharged fully. I do not think that there can be any great progress made in the care of the insane or in their restoration to health which is not based upon their hygienic employment. I am satisfied that the solution of the question of the non-restraint of patients lies in that one thing. With the physical employment of the insane there can be complete abolition of mechanical restraint to advantage in any institution. Two or three institutions are worthy of study in that way by any superintendent who desires to see what can be done. One is at Norristown, Pa. It is wonderful what is done there, on the male side of the house, especially. Dr. Chase shows that seventy-five per cent. of the patients in that institution are every day engaged in some industrial employment. I prefer

to call it hygienic employment, as it is for the sake of health. On the other side of the house, Dr. Alice Bennett shows that fifty per cent. are so employed. But the institution most wonderful in that direction and in its results, one which the late Dr. Goldsmith thought was the most wonderful he had ever seen in the world, with one exception, is at Tuskaloosa, Ala., under Dr. Bryce. I found for the first time there that, after passing through the institution, I could come away from an insane asylum without a sense of depression. I felt as if those patients were as happy as they could be made to be in this world. Ninety per cent. of the women were engaged in some industrial employment, and they were the happiest patients I ever saw.

A paper written by Dr. John Morris, of Baltimore, "The Necessity of Special Institutions for the Care and Cure of Epileptics," was submitted by Dr. Gundry, and read by title.

The following resolutions were offered by Mr. Wines, and referred to the Business Committee:—

Resolved, That the invitation extended by the Illinois State Commissioners of Public Charities to hold the Twentieth National Conference of Charities and Correction, in 1893, in the city of Chicago, be, and the same is, hereby accepted.

Resolved, That the charity workers of the world are invited to meet with us, at the date selected, in an International Conference of Charities.

Resolved, That the authorities in charge of the World's Fair of 1892–93 are requested to arrange for a special exhibit illustrative of the methods and results of charitable and correctional work of every description, in our own and other countries, and for the International Conference of Charities which we here propose in connection with it.

Resolved, That a special committee of fifteen be named by the President to lay this project before the managers of the said International Exhibition, and to formulate, in conjunction with the Executive Committee, a plan for carrying it out in detail.

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be, and hereby is, empowered to act, in the interim between this and the next annual Conference, upon all questions which may arise in connection with the execution of the design indicated in outline in these resolutions, and to develop it in detail, at the discretion of the said committee.

The following petition was presented to the Conference and circulated for signatures, to be sent to Washington, not by the Conference, but by the individuals signing it:—

To the United States Senate and House of Representatives in Congress assembled:

We, the undersigned, members of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, in the city of Baltimore, realizing as we do the important bearing upon the welfare of the nation and of individuals of industrial, technological, and art education, and believing that statistics upon this subject would be of great and permanent value as an aid in the effort to reduce the volume of crime and pauperism

in this country, do hereby petition your honorable bodies to enact a law delegating the Commissioner of Labor, or the Commissioner of Education, as to you may seem most advisable, to collect such statistics upon this subject at home and abroad as may be practicable.

Mrs. Mary E. R. Cobb asked to speak on the subject of police matrons, as she represented the Associated Committee of Women on Police Matrons of Philadelphia.

Mrs. COBB.— In Philadelphia we have for three years had six police matrons. Their appointment was secured through the efforts of an association of women representing five of the leading charitable organizations of the city. Petitions to the city council and letters to leading officials showed the necessity of placing all women and children arrested in charge of a female officer, and appropriations from the city treasury were made for that purpose. This, though gratifying, was insufficient; and last year, through the work of the same committee of women, a bill passed the legislature for the appointment of police matrons, and providing accommodations for them, in every district station-house where women and children are taken. The law is mandatory for all cities of the first and second class in the State. While we have felt that the appointment of the women and the fitting up the new appointments were progressing too slowly, by reason of the indifference or opposition of some of the officials, yet the law is by no means a dead letter. The Associated Committee of Women try to prevent the employment of matrons through political influence and to secure the appointment of excellent, judicious, and humane women. They examine and recommend candidates for vacancies, who must also pass the civil service examination. The committee also visit the stations regularly and receive monthly reports from the matrons. Where special womanly sympathy is required, the matrons consult with the committee. The work of this committee is more approved than formerly; and the official who was at first most adverse to this reform has recently sent women applying to him for the position of matron to the committee for examination, and awaits their recommendation before sending the candidates to take the civil service examination. The six matrons employed had under their care, in 1889, 3,505 women and 541 children, an average of 353 per month. During the month of April, 1890, these six matrons had charge of 341 women and 163 children, a total of 504. Of the women, 155 were mothers, and 196 were intoxicated. 212 were Irish, 113 American, white and colored, and the others were English, German, Scotch, and Spanish. Some of these women were old persons, who were wandering about bewildered; some, insane persons under arrest; some, young mothers. Some of the children were little ones who had been lost. We earnestly recommend similar coworking associations in all cities.

Dr. BYERS.— This subject should have the serious consideration of

this Conference. I should have been glad to have a report from Cincinnati, where the police matrons are doing a good work. No young woman whose misfortune is motherhood before wifehood should ever be placed where she can possibly come in contact with criminal women.

Mrs. L. M. N. STEVENS, of Maine.— As a Maine woman, I take great pride in saying that the first police matron in this country was appointed in Portland. A lady was driving down one of our streets one day, when she saw an intoxicated woman being dragged between two policemen to the station. Close by the woman was a little child, three or four years old. The thought came into the lady's head, What will become of the poor woman when she gets to the station-house? She knew that she would be thrown into a cell, and the child sent to a lodging-house. In the morning the woman would be taken into court, and no woman would be there to say one kindly word or to try to find her friends, if she had any. This lady thought that such things should not be; and her thought took form, and in a few days there was a petition presented to the city fathers of Portland that a woman should be appointed as police matron. The reply came that they could not afford it. The city was told that for the first few months the women would bear the expense, so they were allowed to place a woman in the police station. Before a year her work was recognized by the city, and an appropriation was made to pay her salary. This work is now better understood, and many cities are employing police matrons. Baltimore employs them. So does Chicago, where they have eleven, and last year eleven thousand women passed through their hands. But the work needs to be greatly extended. We wish you to know that we women are thinking about these things, and we are trying to save the women from going into the jails.

Dr. BYERS.— That settles it: it will come if the women are thinking about it.

Adjourned at 12.20 P.M.

THIRTEENTH SESSION.

Tuesday night, May 20.

The Conference met at 8 P.M., the President in the chair. The order for the evening, "Outdoor Poor Relief," was taken up, Rev. Louis F. Zinkhan acting as chairman in the place of F. B. Sanborn, who was not present. A report prepared by Mr. Sanborn was presented (page 73), but not read. A paper, also by Mr. Sanborn, on "Outdoor Poor Relief in Greece and Italy," was read (page 94).

The Secretary, Alexander Johnson, stated the necessity for making early subscriptions to the Proceedings.

On motion, it was unanimously voted that a portrait of Dr. Byers should be placed in the Proceedings.

The chairman of the Business Committee, Mr. Kellogg, reported the resolution offered by F. H. Wines with reference to the Conference for 1893, and recommended its adoption (page 432). It was unanimously adopted.

A paper on "The Recipients of Outdoor Relief" was read by Mr. Isaac P. Wright (page 92).

A paper on "Almshouse Abuses" was read by C. W. Chancellor, M.D., of Baltimore (page 100).

A paper was read by Mrs. Charles R. Lowell, of New York, on "The Economic and Moral Effects of Outdoor Relief" (page 81).

Oscar C. McCulloch offered a resolution that Mrs. Lowell's paper should be reprinted from the Proceedings and sold for a small price, that it might be largely distributed. Referred to the Business Committee.

A paper on "Marriage Relationships in the Tribe of Ishmael" was read by J. F. Wright, Chief Investigator in office of Township Trustees, Indianapolis, as follows:—

MARRIAGE RELATIONSHIPS IN THE TRIBE OF ISHMAEL.

This diagram represents 350 of the families known as "the Tribe of Ishmael," and the lines which connect them represent the marriage relationship between the families. Considerable time has been devoted to the tracing of these marriages, and the result is what you see before you to-night,—a network of relationship which binds a large number of families of paupers and criminals together. By the majority of these families the laws of the State upon the subject of marriage and divorce are regarded as but conveniences for the protection of the rights, or relief from disabilities, of individuals. Moral considerations never enter into their calculations. Thus it is that we have discovered the greatest disregard for morality among the people. Bigamy is not uncommon among them.

A study of the divorce records of Marion County revealed many curious things. In one family there was a marriage of cousins. After the birth of several children, the mother went away with another man, whom she married in another part of the State, but without securing a divorce. Her first husband went to Illinois, and also remarried. In three years the woman returned with her second husband to the city, and became defendant in a suit for divorce and annulment of the marriage, the complaint charging her with

having failed to procure a divorce from her first husband. The marriage was then declared void, and the husband hunted for another wife. Three months later his first wife brought suit for divorce from her first husband. She now has her fourth husband.

It has been observed that divorces run in grooves. While there are exceptions to the rule, it is a fixed fact that this class of people monopolize the divorce courts. It is also an established fact that the divorce courts are the poorest paying courts of the State, except perhaps the criminal court. Every officer recognizes the impossibility of securing his legal fees in divorce cases, and it is only at rare intervals that the records show these fees are paid. Thus the ease with which divorces are to be obtained makes the law a mere convenience for this element. In one family we have a record of five marriages for each of three children, and of seven marriages for the fourth daughter. In the next generation we find one of this family who has been married nine times. She is aged about thirty-six years.

These frequent marriages are closely allied to crime, and many of the crimes of which the State is compelled to take cognizance are directly traceable to this laxity of the laws governing marriage and divorce. Several murders have been traced to these causes. Kidnapping has also been a result. Theft, arson, and other offences have been the direct outgrowth of this iniquitous business.

Many strange relationships are found among these people, and they form a study at once curious and appalling. In one case, a man and his wife had a half-brother in common, and yet there was no blood relationship existing between them. In another case, one man is the son of his sister, the grandson of his father, the stepfather, father-in-law, and brother-in-law of his own brother, who is at the same time his half-brother and uncle.

The marriage tie sometimes binds a family ten, twelve, and fourteen times in this relationship. This stratum of society seems to thrive by neglect, and cannot be crushed out by the laws which we have. Heroic treatment is sometimes necessary to effect a cure for disease. But that the stamp of nature's disapproval has been placed here is apparent from the fact that the children born to these people are mentally and physically deformed, and the great mass of these die young. Thus nature has thrown around us a safeguard in the form of a boundary line beyond which none shall go without peril.

From the records we have learned how the marriage law has been used to defeat the purpose of other laws. One woman kept the community in a turmoil for several years by her application for a marriage license, and she was made to figure in a number of sensational accounts in the papers. But she merely held the license as a shield for her protection; and, as she never had the marriage ceremony performed, she was enabled to continue to draw her pension to the day when she was drowned in the canal. There are many instances of the marriage of white women to negro men, but our research has

failed to show where a white man has married a colored woman. I see by the papers that a case of this character is attracting some attention at present in this city. Mixed marriages are contrary to the law in every State, so far as I can learn; and yet it is frequently violated, and rarely is the violation punished.

The matter of ages should be considered for a moment. The records show marriages of mere children to be a frequent occurrence. These children are found to be twelve to sixteen years of age. Thus, in a few years, we find a woman with a house full of children, broken down in health, unfitted for the duties of life, unable to exist without public support. It frequently happens that, when this condition of affairs is brought about, the divorce courts are appealed to; and thus the burden to the community is increased, in that this division of the household is again licensed to repeat the experiment in new directions. Sometimes we find a girl who has not yet reached the age of fifteen married to a man old enough to be her grandfather. In one case, a child of eleven years was engaged to be married to a man of sixty; but the case was lost sight of, and, if marriage was consummated, it was not known. In one case, there appeared in court a woman aged thirty-eight, her daughter aged twenty-six, her grand-daughter aged thirteen, and her great-grand-daughter, aged one year,— four generations in what should have been one.

Our laws governing marriage and divorce need consideration. They are too lax. The lines should be tightened, and by a wise administration the laws of nature should be aided, to the end that our civilization shall move forward in straight lines, and that we shall secure by proper observances the highest type of humanity, which means an economy of the forces which are now being wasted under a misapprehension of the difference between liberty and license.

Dr. Byers.— I have received a note from a person in the audience suggesting that the managers of orphan asylums and similar institutions should train the older girls as nurses for children, on a simplified kindergarten plan. It would teach the girls patience, gentleness, and tact, so needful in the care of children. The girls thus taught would easily secure employment.

Mr. Rosenau said that he would be glad to tell any one about the training school for nursery maids of Buffalo.

Adjourned at 10 P.M.

FOURTEENTH SESSION.

Wednesday morning, May 21.

The Conference met at 9.45 A.M., and was called to order by Vice-President Craig. Prayer was offered by Rev. W. C. Wilson.

The report of the Treasurer was read and accepted (page 453).

The following resolution, offered by W. P. Letchworth, was read, and referred to the Business Committee: —

Resolved, That this Conference desires to place on record its appreciation of the carefulness and good taste with which Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows has discharged the duties of stenographer and editor of the last Conference, and also cordially to thank her for the valuable service she has voluntarily rendered the Conference in attending to business details relating to the distribution of its printed Proceedings.

Mr. G. S. Griffith said that he hoped no one would think that in his paper of the night before Dr. Chancellor had reference to the Maryland almshouses. Some years ago these almshouses were in a miserable condition, but that is a thing of the past. The buildings are in good repair, and there has been a great improvement in the management of these institutions. Religious services are held every Sunday, literature is distributed, and they are visited constantly by committees of ladies. A law has been passed that no children shall be retained in almshouses after the age of three years.

Mr. Letchworth said that he understood Dr. Chancellor to be speaking about almshouses in general, and without reference to any institutions in particular.

A letter from Mr. Charles L. Dobson, of Missouri, was read, which is too long for insertion, in which he stated that in his opinion insane asylums "in Europe are much more wisely and humanely managed than those in America. . . . One feature of the European institutions which impressed me favorably is the padded or upholstered room for violent patients. That is a feature which I did not see in any American asylum. . . . Many of the methods practised in the American asylums are better calculated to make a sane man insane than to restore the diseased mind to a normal condition. The crib bed and confining chair should be utterly abolished from use in every civilized country. . . . In their stead should be the upholstered room, an increase of attendants, and more care in the selection of attendants."

Dr. Richard Gundry spoke in favor of American asylums for the insane, saying that, though the abolition of restraint in this country had been gradual, it had been very successful.

Dr. Byers.— I think it just to say that in the Athens (Ohio) asylum, opened by Dr. Gundry in 1874, there never has been a crib nor any form of mechanical restraint except that which has been required *ad interim* for surgical cases. The Toledo asylum was organized on the same plan. Wherever this system has been introduced with us, I have seen the blessed results of it.

The order for the day, "The Care of the Feeble-minded," was then taken up, the chairman, Dr. Isaac N. Kerlin, in charge. Dr. Kerlin read a paper on "The Moral Imbecile" (page 244).

The following resolution, offered by Miss Z. D. Smith, of Boston, was adopted: —

Resolved, That the chairmen of committees be at once notified officially of their appointment and their powers, and given a list of their committees.

The report of the Committee on Organization was presented, and the officers and committees recommended were unanimously elected (pages ix–xi).

A paper on "The Purposes and Work of the New York Custodial Asylum," by Rev. Manley S. Hard, D.D., was read by Mrs. Helen B. Case, of Rochester, N.Y.

Miss E. C. Putnam, of Boston, gave the history of a young girl who had come under her notice in the State Primary School first, but who had since been to Bridgewater poorhouse, Sherborn prison, Deer Island, the Watertown almshouse, and then again to Sherborn prison. No one seemed to have any control over her, and she seemed to have no sense of responsibility; and yet she was not a criminal, in the strict sense. Miss Putnam asked what should have been done with such a girl.

A DELEGATE. — In New Jersey she would have been sent to our Feeble-minded Institution.

Mr. N. S. Rosenau, of Buffalo, was asked to describe his visit of last summer to the Institution for the Feeble-minded at Bicêtre, France.

Mr. ROSENAU. — I am neither a physician nor an expert in the care of the feeble-minded; and I am not going to speak of a French institution because I deem it superior to anything in America, — for I am an American of Americans, — but I describe it because it is the best I have seen. I have been in only one in this country.

The school-room at Bicêtre is cheerful, and lighted from two sides. We first saw the children at gymnastics. The appliances were simple. They consisted chiefly of ropes, with cleats at intervals, so that a person could grasp them and draw himself up. From there we entered a class-room, where the children were at ordinary desks, with one teacher to every six children. The latter were of various grades of intelligence. To the first row were given blocks of different shapes, that they might familiarize themselves with the different surfaces and angles. The next step in education was to give them little boards, with spaces cut in them, and blocks of the same shape as

these spaces, which they were to fit together. The next stage was similar, only the blocks were of different colors, and the space colored to correspond to its proper block, so that the children acquired the association of color as well as of shape. Then they had samples of wool and cotton, and cotton and woollen clothing; and the child handled these, and was taught to associate the raw wool with the woollen cloth, and the raw cotton with the cotton cloth. Next they had boxes of different cereals, each in a compartment of its own. The child would take up a little wheat, and was taught the name of it, and how to put it into its own compartment; and so on with the whole series. They had strips of cloth with buttons and another with buttonholes, and they learned to button and unbutton them. They had pieces of cloth with eyelets, and were taught to lace them together. Of course, they were taught habits of cleanliness, and I saw one little imbecile child washing the face of another. From this simpler instruction they went on into regular class-rooms, where they learned reading and writing and higher branches as they were able. We saw some of them keeping books for the institution. Their exercises in calisthenics were admirable. They did not use music, but it was purely a military exercise. The highest development that I saw was a band of music of fifteen pieces playing excellent music. They had been instructed by an imbecile, and were under his care at the time.

The Business Committee reported the resolution of thanks to Mrs. Barrows, and recommended its adoption. It was unanimously adopted.

Dr. Byers.— I hoped there would be a tie, so that I could have the pleasure of casting the decisive vote!

On motion of A. O. Wright, it was voted that the resolutions with reference to reprinting Mr. Wines's report and the paper by Mrs. Lowell should be referred to the Executive Committee, with power.

DISCUSSION ON CARE OF FEEBLE-MINDED.

Dr. James W. Walk, of Philadelphia.— Dr. Kerlin's paper calls our attention to a class which must in the very near future receive much additional attention in many of our States. In a rough classification, we have defective, destitute, and delinquent persons to take care of. Among the defectives, we have the insane, the deaf-mutes, the blind, and, last, the feeble-minded, the idiotic class. While private charity has its function in dealing with the destitutes, and to a certain degree with the delinquents, the work among the defectives is peculiarly a work which must be done by the State. I would advise the appropriation of public money for this purpose, not as a charity, but because it is necessary for public protection. I am, for example, in favor of voting public money for the care of the feeble-minded

children and adults at Elwyn, not because I am interested in the feeble-minded, but because I am interested in the rest of the people of the Commonwealth. I am interested in the feeble-minded, too; but that is not a reason for giving money from the public treasury. The feeble-minded should not be allowed to roam at large and multiply themselves indefinitely. I think it is time for every American State to consider this matter, and to put its idiotic population under custodial care, not for a day or a week, but under *permanent* care. The quicker this is done, the cheaper it is going to be. I have seen in my own State an insane man who had seven idiotic children. But, if you are going to shut up all the idiotic and feeble-minded where they can do no harm, you must do it in some cheap way. I hope it will be shown just how cheaply it can be done, while at the same time these unfortunates are given wise and humane care. If it cannot be done at a cheap rate, you can never get money to do it. Most of the commonwealths in this country are in debt; and it will be practically impossible in three-fourths of them to provide for this class, unless it can be done at small cost. The feeble-minded should be kept at a cost not exceeding what it costs to keep the families of laboring men. The working people, who practically pay the taxes, object most decidedly to paying six times as much for keeping a public dependant as they pay for keeping their own children. I know the problem is a difficult one; but I implore the wise men and women of this Conference to turn their attention to this class of public dependants, and, if they can be taken care of cheaply, I believe within twenty-five years the entire class can be provided for.

Dr. Byers.— In our State, we have one of the best managed institutions in the country for the feeble-minded. But there is no public question demanding more earnest attention than the custodial care of this class of people. The superintendent of the Ohio institution has made a proposition to the legislature of that State like this: Give me the land and allow me to gather the idiotic and imbecile population now under public care together, and I agree that the institution shall be made self-sustaining, and I will pay back to the State the price of the land. And those that are familiar with the subject may understand the entire practicability of accomplishing this. Maryland has recently established an institution for the custodial class. I was there at its organization, and I have been there during the session of this Conference; and it is a wonderful thing to see the development that has been so speedily made.

Flora A. Brewster, M.D.— I am in correspondence with a large number of epileptics throughout the States. There seems to be no place for them. They go to prisons, almshouses, and many drift into insane asylums. The insane asylum is no place for them. They are not insane. In many respects they are as bright as other people. They are drifting toward imbecility. It was my fortune to become intimately acquainted with the work of an institution near Hanover, Germany, where epileptics are gathered together; and I am intensely

interested in this class. They are in a truly pitiable condition. No one wants them, no one cares for them. More attention should be paid to this class.

Mr. GLENN.— Mr. Walk, in speaking of the feeble-minded as defectives, spoke also of the blind in the same way. It is the custom of the community at large to look upon the blind as defective. I want to say, from an experience of thirty-five or forty years, that the blind are perfectly able to take their position in the community, to make good citizens, and to support themselves. The public should not say to them, "You are defectives," but give them its hand, and they will take care of themselves. That is a point I wish to emphasize here and everywhere. There is a difference between them and others. You put the insane, the imbecile, the idiot, into institutions, and spend money in educating them and bringing light into their dark lives. Still, there is a point beyond which you cannot go. You say to them, Thus far can you go, but no further; and it is true. You never can restore them to society. They never can take their part in society. They never can support themselves in society. But the blind are simply doing the work in the dark which you are doing in the light. They are practically able, after education, to take their own position and do their own work; and I want to ask you and this country and this government to say: We will never say that you cannot go any further. We will open our hearts and stretch out our hands to you, and you can take your stand side by side with us, and do your own work. Let me tell you one thing more, to assure you that I am not speaking outside the record. The entire work of tuning pianos in Paris is done by the blind. We have here a tuner, a blind man, who has a balance in the bank. Do not confuse those who can do their part in the community with those who never can.

Mr. WALK.— I hope I shall not be understood as casting the slightest inputation upon either the blind or the deaf. I graduated from college with one of the most brilliant men I ever knew, who was deprived of sight. He took honors. I meant simply that the children who are deprived of sight cannot attend the ordinary public schools that are provided for seeing children. The State must provide special schools to enable them to have such advantages as are freely furnished to all the other children. I am familiar with the magnificent work done by Mr. Hall in Pennsylvania, and with the fact, which all sensible men recognize, that those who are deprived of sight may take a very high place in the industrial community. They may do many things as well, and some perhaps better, than seeing people. I only classified them as defectives during the educational period. It is also true that many who are temporarily insane recover, and are as useful as any other members of the community. Some of the most distinguished men, from Julius Cæsar down, have been epileptics.

Mr. WINES.— I think we are apt to be too much discouraged in all charitable work in consequence of our not seeing immediate results. There is a close connection between charitable work of every sort

and the belief in the immortality of the soul. I do not see how any man can have the proper inspiration or courage, who does not believe both in the existence of the soul and in its immortality. And, if we believe in the immortality of the soul, I should like to ask you how you know what may be the ultimate result, in a future state, of efforts made in the present life. How can you estimate the value of an effort, for instance, to illumine the darkened mind of an idiot? Nothing is ever lost in the way of benevolent endeavor. It always tells somewhere. And there is the same connection between this thought of the immortality of the soul and work for the criminal class. I like sometimes to emphasize the religious aspects of this work.

Mr. CRAIG.— I want to say one word in emphasis of the thought so well expressed by Mr. Wines, and to say, further, that I believe not only in immortality, but also in free will. The paper read expresses the relation of the nervous organism to the mental or spiritual power, which is a relation of mutual limitation, resulting in the case of idiocy, as described in the paper. But I love to think of the immortal and free principle belonging to every member of the human family in the last analysis. I noticed with pleasure yesterday that the paper read by the eminent alienist, the specialist, the scientist, who has had so much experience with the insane, did not seem to have any underlying principle of materialism in it, as is so often the case with scientific men. And, as he said afterwards, there can be no such thing as an insane soul. I do think that you cannot make the spiritual power a part of the forces which are now said to be in correlation. You cannot reduce thought to the lowest postulates of the conservation of energy. The moment you reduce a man to a mass of matter, and say that the soul is the secretion of the brain as the fragrance is the secretion of the flower, that moment you become a pessimist, and lose the highest motive to do charitable work.

Mrs. B. WILLIAMS, of New Jersey.— We have a State institution for feeble-minded in Newark, N.J. We have a lady superintendent, a medical director, a trained nurse, and it is completely under the care of women. At present we have about thirty inmates. We have had a bill pass the legislature which gives us an additional appropriation, and we shall be able to accommodate one hundred. I should like to say to any one here from States that make no provision for their feeble-minded that we should be glad to board such children at from $2.50 to $3.00 a week until they shall have institutions of their own. Our physician, a graduate of the women's college in Philadelphia, is doing wonderful work. There is a private institution for feeble-minded children at Vineland, N.J., at the head of which is a Quaker. He takes large numbers of the State patients. It is an admirable institution. I am sorry to say that at present we have on our list sixty women waiting for admission, from fifteen years old up. I have no doubt there are many more in the almshouses. In our management of this institution, we started from the point which Mr. Wines has given you, that these are all human souls who are going to

God just as much as we are, and that we are educating them for something better. Ours is a State institution; but clergymen of all denominations are welcome, whenever they choose to come.

Mr. ROSENAU.— The legislature of the State of New York, at its last session, passed a bill making it obligatory for trustees of insane asylums to appoint in each a female physician.

Dr. KERLIN.— I would like to answer the pertinent inquiry made by Miss Putnam. We should have no difficulty in disposing of this sad case in Pennsylvania, but would send her to the institution for the feeble-minded, as the only proper resort for the poor little girl. She would not have been sent to the reformatory. Still, we are not thirsting for this class of cases. It is a special class, and needs a special classification, such as neither the reformatory nor the school for imbeciles now furnishes. In my paper, however, I wished to draw attention to this class of people as constituting three per cent. of those received. They are capable of intellectual training, and for that reason are more dangerous than ordinary idiots in the community. The object of the paper is to suggest a revision of our classification so as to fully include "moral imbeciles," and to bring about such a change in our opinions of crime that we shall recognize these most unfortunate boys and girls as "moral imbeciles." It was not my thought to bar any from a possible improvement. We believe that we may do a great deal of good to these unfortunates; but they should be trained in the direction of helping the more helpless. Intellectually and physically, they are capable; but their infirmity consists in such a weakened will that they have not "the power to choose." Under proper influences, they may become very helpful in reducing the cost of an institution. Dr. Walk speaks of the overwhelming cost for the custodial care of adult imbeciles. It may be greatly diminished by the recognition of moral imbecility, and by transferring the care of the more helpless to this class, retained as aids in our general institutions. They have the arms and muscles to do the work. They need direction for their energy and unceasing protection. They may become the Gibeonites, the bearers of wood and water, in our institutions, but must always be under suitable supervision. In regard to the expense of maintenance, by the admission to Elwyn alone of the small percentage of moral imbeciles, we have reduced the expenses from $350 per annum down to $175; and this reduction is going on, as the ability of many of our inmates to work is brought about. With the direction of their attendants, they make much of their own clothing, entirely so, I believe, on the girls' side. Our bakery, turning out food for a thousand people, is managed very largely by feeble-minded boys, one of whom is a moral imbecile. Another boy, a moral imbecile, chiefly depended on for the running of the home machines, is in our laundry. I should doubt the propriety of educating him in the class-room, but he enjoys the hard work in the laundry. In reply to Dr. Gundry, I have always been a pessimist in regard to the cure of insanity, and have never

used the word "cure" with regard to idiocy in any of its grades. I believe it is a radical defect that attaches itself to the brain and life of the patient. I have the same pessimistic view in regard to moral idiocy. I believe it to be incurable. I believe that we should come to the recognition of the moral idiot or imbecile in his early life, place him under the best custodial environment for his own good, and be very slow to discharge him into the community. Mr. Rosenau has spoken most interestingly of his visit to the idiot school connected with Bicêtre, but did not tell you that here originated the care and treatment of the feeble-minded, under that grand physician, Dr. Edouard Seguin. But, as the old philanthropist said, "France, in lighting other nations, had let her own lamp go out." Seguin's teachings and faith have planted institutions for the feeble-minded in all parts of the civilized world. We have eighteen in America, three or four in Norway, and more in Sweden, at least fifteen in England, nearly one hundred in Germany, and so scattered all through the world, as the result of Seguin's work, begun at Bicêtre, I think, in 1824. We are glad to hear from Mr. Rosenau his eloquent words on the restoration of life at Bic être to-day under Bourneville.

The following resolution was offered by Miss E. C. Putnam of Boston: —

Resolved, That any person who is aware of the moral imbecility of a child shall not place that child either at board or, free of expense, in the community.

Dr. Byers.— Miss Putnam's resolution will be placed on record, although it is too late to take any action on it.

Adjourned at 12.25 P.M.

FIFTEENTH SESSION.

Wednesday night, May 21.

The closing session of the Conference was held in the concert hall of the Academy. Mr. Joseph M. Cushing, chairman of the Local Committee, presided. Music was furnished by a quartette of young men. The first address of the evening was given by Cardinal Gibbons, who spoke as follows: —

ADDRESS OF CARDINAL GIBBONS.

As I had not an opportunity of uniting with my fellow-citizens in tendering you a hearty welcome, I beg to unite with them in wishing you all a safe and happy return to your homes. Whatever may be our differences in point of faith, it is gratifying to reflect that we stand to-night shoulder to shoulder and hand to hand on the common

platform of charity and benevolence. There is enormous wealth in this country, there is great poverty; but there is more charity. Where wealth and poverty abound, thanks be to God, charity superabounds. What better evidence can we have of the spirit of benevolence that pervades the land than the spectacle which presents itself before us to-night, of so many members assembled together, coming from various and distant parts of the country, and remaining in our city for several days with great inconvenience to themselves and at a personal sacrifice, for the sole purpose of devising the best means for improving the physical and moral condition of their fellow-beings? And yet an assembly like this does not excite any great surprise, nor does it evoke any enthusiastic admiration, because the world has grown used to such assemblies. But it is only by contrasting our Christian civilization with the pagan civilization which preceded it that we will fully appreciate the blessings and sublime attitude of a meeting like this, or form a correct idea and an adequate appreciation of the noble movement in which you are all engaged. Pagan Greece and Rome, even in their fairest days, did not contain a single orphan asylum for abandoned youth. They did not contain a solitary hospital, nor any home for the aged poor. When the aged and infirm slave was incapable of longer working, he was cast aside like so much useless lumber, and left to perish on the banks of the Tiber. But, when our Saviour appeared upon the earth, he shed a halo around human sorrow and human suffering. He proclaimed the sanctity of human life; and, for my part, much as I admire the sublime doctrine and teachings of Christian religion, much as I admire the Christian code of morals, I am drawn still more forcibly to the Christian religion by that organized system of benevolence which she has established for the amelioration of suffering humanity.

The cardinal enumerated some of the principal works of benevolence,—infant asylums, orphan asylums, hospitals, homes for the aged poor, etc.,—and stated that there are now thirty thousand aged people in the charge of the Little Sisters, and seventy thousand have died under their care since their foundation in 1840.

No matter what efforts may be made by philanthropists and social economists for the removal of poverty, we must make up our minds that poverty, in one shape or another, will always exist among us. The words of Christ will be ever verified, "The poor ye have always with you." You might as well try to legislate vice out of existence as to legislate poverty and suffering out of the world. London is to-day the richest city in the world. It is also the poorest. Berlin, with a population of a million and a half, has two hundred thousand souls living from hand to mouth and verging on poverty.

It is in accordance with the economy of Divine Providence that men should exist in unequal conditions in society for the exercise of benevolent virtues. If all were equally rich, all would be equally poor. Some are blessed with the good things of this world, that they might exercise toward their less favored brothers the virtues of charity, be-

nevolence, and generosity. Others are poor, that they might practise the virtues of patience and gratitude to their benefactors; and thus the stream of social virtues is continually kept in motion.

The great question which confronts you, ladies and gentlemen, is this: How are you to subserve the interests of the poor and suffering? Three methods are proposed: —

First. By promiscuous almsgiving. But this method is open to the objection that it can relieve only a limited number, and that the benefactors are liable to be imposed upon.

Second. The second method is by relegating the poor and distressed to State and national institutions. But this would be converting the State and nation into paternal governments, and experience has shown that paternal governments are not the most desirable. They hamper individual efforts.

Third. The third method is attained when a number of men and women, animated by a spirit of zeal and charity for their fellow-beings, voluntarily band themselves together for the purpose of relieving the distressed. This is the best of all methods, and it is yours. It combines all that is good in the other methods. Your heart is in your work. You diligently search out the poor. You are discriminating in your charity. You are trying to remove the causes of misery, to reclaim the unfortunate, to put them on their feet, and to make them useful and honorable members of society. You do not say with Cain of old, "Am I my brother's keeper?" What would have become of you and me, what would have become of society, if Christ the Lord had said, "Am I my brother's keeper?" Yes: we are and ought to be our brother's keeper. No matter how limited our means, how circumscribed our influence, every one of us has a mission, and can do good in our day and generation.

We should take an active, personal interest in our neighbors' welfare. And never do we approach nearer to God than when we help his poor. Never are we more like our heavenly Father than when we cause the sunshine of joy to illumine hearts that are dark and desolate. You become, as it were, a copartner with God in his creative power when you cause the flowers of joy and sunshine to grow again in hearts that were barren and desolate.

"Religion," says the apostle, "religion pure and undefiled before God the Father is this, to visit the fatherless and widows in their tribulations, and to keep ourselves unspotted from this world."

A brief farewell word was spoken by Mr. Cushing, who also read a letter from the Governor of Maryland, expressing his regret at his enforced absence from the meeting.

Dr. Byers invited Mr. Elmore to respond in behalf of the Conference.

Mr. Elmore.—I have attended the National Conference and the National Prison Association meetings in eighteen different cities,

seventeen in the United States and one in Toronto, Canada; and in not one of all these meetings have we had as good an attendance as in Baltimore. We have never received kindlier treatment than in this city of Baltimore. I hope to live long enough to see another National Conference here. If you will go to work next year and get your legislature to establish a State Board of Charities, so that you can concentrate all your efforts, we will be here before five years roll around. I shall be past eighty then, but I expect to be here. I am not an orator, and I cannot make a speech, and I would not if I could; but I thank you for all your kindness individually and collectively.

Dr. Byers invited Mr. Wines to make a farther response.

Mr. Wines, in acknowledging the hospitality and courtesy of the city of Baltimore, paid a tribute of respect and gratitude to the names of Johns Hopkins, George Peabody, Enoch Pratt, Moses Shepard, Thomas Wilson, Henry Watson, and others whose names, he said, were familiar to the Conference for the good work that they had done in the world. He especially commended the action of the Johns Hopkins University in the matter of training young men for philanthropic work as a career. He closed as follows:—

We have been received with a kindness, a courtesy, and a hospitality which are beyond all praise and for which we can never sufficiently thank you. But we feel that you have done yet more for us in attending our meetings and extending to us this warm hand of greeting and recognition. I desire especially, in the presence of his Excellency the Cardinal, on behalf of this entire Conference, to thank him for the cordial recognition and the approval of the Church.

Every year we meet in different cities, but I have not got used to parting with the people whom we learn to love at each annual gathering; but I think that we part with the people of Baltimore with a sharper pang than usual, and we hope that, if some "wind of the western sea" does not blow us back to Baltimore, some wind of the eastern sea may blow you out upon the prairies or to the mountains of Colorado, and that we shall have the pleasure of seeing you and taking you by the hand again.

Brief addresses were made by Hon. Amos H. Mylin, of Pennsylvania, and Hon. Robert McCarthy, of New York, after which the following resolutions were offered by Mr. Alexander Johnson, of Indiana. These were seconded by Oscar C. McCulloch, and were unanimously adopted by a rising vote.

Resolved, That the thanks of the Seventeenth National Conference of Charities and Correction are due, and are hereby most heartily tendered, to the citizens of

Baltimore and the State and municipal authorities of Maryland for their cordial reception and unbounded hospitality; that we are especially indebted to the government and faculty of Johns Hopkins University, of Johns Hopkins Hospital, and of the Young Men's Christian Association; to the Thomas Wilson Sanitarium for a delighful excursion and reception; to the St. Mary's Industrial School and the House of Refuge for cordial hospitality; for kind courtesies to the City Hospital, the Women's College, the Maryland Institute, the Pratt Library, the Maryland School for the Blind, the Peabody Institute, the German Orphanage, the Maryland Hospital for the Insane, and the Samuel Ready Asylum; to the clubs of the city for kind hospitalities extended, especially to the Baltimore Club, which generously invited us all within its hospitable doors; to the Ladies' Committee for kind attention to our lady delegates. To the newspaper men of Baltimore, for full and intelligent reports of our sessions, we extend our thanks. Last, but by no means least, to the Local Committee, under the leadership of their chairman, that most genial of men, James M. Cushing, Esq., with their most courteous and indefatigable secretary, John M. Glenn, Esq., we tender our most hearty thanks for local arrangements rarely equalled in our experience of seventeen years.

Resolved, That we have been especially impressed with the number, extent, and tenderness of the many charities founded by the munificence of private citizens of Baltimore; that we recognize in such foundations the unparalleled development and the Christian tone of the community which has produced such citizens, and inspired and stimulated them to become at once the exemplars and benefactors of their brethren, by the right use and stewardship of the wealth with which God has blessed them.

The Business Committee reported favorably on the following resolution with reference to libraries offered by Mr. Kellogg, and it was unanimously adopted: —

Resolved, That the libraries of the United States be invited to co-operate in the work of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, by placing in their collections reports of the various charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions and societies of the country, and maintaining collections of books on charitable, penal, and reformatory subjects.

[The following resolution was adopted by the Conference at a previous session, but owing to a clerical error was omitted: —]

Resolved, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction respectfully recommend to ministers, pastors, and clergymen of every denomination to preach an annual sermon, preferably upon one of the Sundays of the period observed by several religious bodies as the season of Lent, upon the subject of charity; and, in preparation therefor, to make personal inspection of the social, moral, and physical conditions and surroundings of the depressed and dependent classes, and of the condition and administration of the public and private charitable societies and institutions of their immediate localities, with a view to advancing the welfare of the poor, securing every possible improvement in the methods of benevolence, and enforcing upon the prosperous a realization of their duties as neighbors to those who are less favored than themselves.

The following persons were elected a committee to arrange for the holding of an International Conference of Charities and Correction in Chicago, in 1893: —

Charles G. Trusdell, Chicago; George S. Hale, Boston; Oscar Craig, Rochester, N.Y.; James W. Walk, M.D., Philadelphia; John Glenn, Baltimore, Md.; Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, Ohio; John R. Elder, Indianapolis; Levi L. Barbour, Detroit; Andrew E. Elmore, Fort Howard, Wis.; D. C. Bell, Minneapolis, Minn.; Myron W. Reed, Colorado; H. O. Nelson, St. Louis, Mo.; A. S. Colyar, Nashville, Tenn.; Ben. E. McCulloch, Texas.

On motion of Mr. Elmore, it was voted that the Executive Committee that should be in office preceding the Conference of 1893 should form part of the Committee of the International Conference.

President Byers made a brief speech, of which the following is an abstract: —

Dr. Byers. — This is the supreme moment of my personal relation to the occasion that has brought us together. I wish, in behalf of myself and the entire Conference, to express to the chairman of the Local Committee our high appreciation of the wonderful fidelity and wisdom exercised in making provision for our entertainment and work here. We shall carry with us grateful recollections of Mr. Cushing and those associated with him on that committee. There has been a young man going about during this week, and to my knowledge for a long time before, quietly and so pleasantly that you would have thought he had some delightful task on hand, the first on duty in the morning and the last on duty at night, — Mr. John M. Glenn. And there is another gentleman, whom I know I shall be pardoned for mentioning, who journeyed to California and brought this Conference to Baltimore, and has literally *seen* to everything connected with it, — Mr. John Glenn. I know I express the sentiments of this Conference in making recognition of these names. There are others whom I might name if it were possible at this late hour.

I do not know that I shall ever meet you all again, — that is, in our earthly Conference. I have been unwell for some time; and it is probable that, when you come together again, I shall not be there. If so, I rejoice to know that it will not in any way affect the work. There was a time when one dropping out might have made a difference; not now.

Eight months ago the gavel of authority was placed in my hands by one venerable in wisdom and in good works, Bishop Gillespie, of Michigan. It has been one of the regrets that we have all felt that he could not be here this year. It now becomes my duty, my pleasant duty, to hand over this gavel to my friend, Oscar C. McCulloch, of Indiana. [Turning to Mr. McCulloch] Mr. McCulloch, my friend, you are young, but you are experienced,

you have intelligence in the matters pertaining to the great work in which this Conference is engaged. May God give you grace for every day and every duty. God bless you!

The following is an abstract of Mr. McCulloch's response: —

Oscar C. McCulloch.—We are all in a mood of tender feeling to-night. We hardly know what to say. Over all the exercises of this Conference there has rested a shadow, as some of you know, now lightening, now growing denser, with the sickness of our dear friend, Dr. Byers. We have missed that pleasant play of wit which lighted up the saddest subject. We have missed the passion which carried conviction along the line of its thought. We hope and pray that health may return to him, and long and happy days may yet be his. But we turn our faces toward the future. Already the light of the Eighteenth Conference is rising like a star out of the future. The new day with its new duties calls on us.

We recognize and appreciate the hospitality of our friends of Baltimore. Nothing has been left undone that could minister to our pleasure or comfort.

But especially has there been a spiritual hospitality,— a hospitality to the ideas and objects of this Conference. There was a deep note struck at the opening meeting of this Conference. There has been a serious attention given to the problems which we have had to consider. The attendance has grown larger with each meeting. The newspapers have reported well the papers, and have assisted in emphasizing the importance of the discussions.

Our work is with the sorrows, the troubles, the miseries, and the crimes of men, women, and children. It is not so much a theory that confronts us as a condition. We do not know just what to do in many cases; but we are trying to do the best we can. We enter the field with hope and cheerfulness. We trust in the spirit of self-sacrifice.

For myself, I shall carry away the impression that in Baltimore there is an unusual diffusion of the charity sentiment. I recognize that we have heard the names of but a few of these charities, that there are many others that are equally helpful and beneficent. There is something peculiarly pathetic in that incident told us of the original idea in the Thomas Wilson Sanitarium. The memory of his own little fever-stricken child became the inspiration to provide help for other children. Being dead, he yet spoke: "A little child shall lead them." At the heart of every charity lies some such sentiment. One of your friends in this city said, pointing to a picture: "There is a woman who taught me what charity meant, and took me along the road to it,— my mother. When a boy, I carried the basket for her, every Saturday afternoon, when she went to distribute charity among her poor. All my interest in that work comes from her."

But the sentiment of charity in Baltimore is receiving intelligent direction from your noble university,— the Johns Hopkins. It is,

and is to be, the source and centre of influences which are to make charity intelligent as well as pitiful,— and not only here, but throughout the land as well, wherever its graduates shall go.

I doubt not, too, that when that great university of the Catholic Church is completed and equipped, whose foundations have been so recently laid, it will take up the scientific — that is, the intelligent — administration of charity into its scheme of study. For, along with the science of law, of medicine, of politics, and political economy, the education of a young man in intelligent charity must have a place.

We are dealing with charity. Charity is love on its way to justice. We first pity, then sympathize, then want to deal justly with the person. I quite agree with my friend of the Knights of Labor that we ought to deal in this Conference with questions of justice. I have often felt as a woman must feel about darning stockings and mending clothes; but we must darn the stockings and mend the clothes if we cannot get new ones. Any physician would prefer to deal with the prevention of disease rather than its cure; but, until the science of medicine is so developed that it can control the causes of disease, he must go about allaying the fever and quieting the disturbed spirit. Preventive medicine, whatever it may be in the future, cannot at present replace remedial efforts for allaying suffering and sorrow. For a long time to come, this Conference of Charities and Correction must confine itself in trying to help those who are in trouble, to bind up that which is broken, to preach liberty to the captive, and opening of eyes to the blind.

We have met together from many different States, members of different political parties and of different religious faiths; but there has been a deep unity underrunning all,— charity. And we go forward in faith, hope, love. Faith sees the ideal society, the ideal man, strong, self-centred, self-helpful, happy. Faith sees the ideal child, growing up into the beauty and health and happiness which are the birthright and heritage of all. Hope sees all this coming, the light of the new day breaking on the mountain tops. Love works patiently and intelligently to bring these things to pass. Love hopes all things, believes all things, makes no haste, is never anxious or worried or impatient, and therefore endures all things.

He that believeth shall never make haste. What is good belongs to the eternal order, and man can wait for it. What is seventy years to the Eternal, or to one who works for eternity? What are we in our little limitations, who impatiently try to lift up that which is bowed down, to bind up that which is broken, when the patient God can so persistently wait? Let us be patient,— the patience, however, not of those who have nothing to do, but the patience of a lofty and sustained hope.

After the singing of the hymn, "God be with you till we meet again," and a benediction by Dr. Byers, the Conference adjourned, *sine die*, at 11 P.M.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

To the Executive Committee of the Seventeenth National Conference of Charities and Correction: —

The Treasurer of the Conference respectfully submits the following summary of his receipts and expenditures from Feb. 1, 1890, to May 20, 1890: —

SIXTEENTH CONFERENCE.

Receipts.

From F. B. Sanborn, check on Middlesex Institution for Savings,	$1,000.00
From F. B. Sanborn, check on Concord National Bank,	8.08
From Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, for sale of Conference Proceedings, as follows: —	
Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities,	112.50
Massachusetts State Board of Lunacy and Charity,	101.25
Indiana Board of State Charities,	56.25
New York State Board of Charities,	100.00
Rhode Island Board of State Charities and Corrections,	27.00
Charity Organization Society, Baltimore, Md.,	13.50
Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis, Ind.,	7.50
Charity Organization Society, Denver, Col.,	9.00
Charity Organization Society, Buffalo, N.Y.,	3.00
Charity Organization Society, New York City,	9.00
State Reform School, Pontiac, Ill.,	9.00
State Farm School, Massachusetts,	13.50
Reform School for Boys, Plainfield, Ind.,	4.50
Prison Association, New York,	3.00
State Hospital for the Insane, Anna, Ill.,	7.50
State Almshouse, Tewksbury, Mass.,	7.50
Board of Control, St. Paul, Minn.,	9.00
House of Correction, Detroit, Mich.,	7.50
Seth Low, Brooklyn, N.Y.,	22.90
George H. Knight, Superintendent, Lakeville, Conn.,	9.00
Dr. Richard Gundry, Superintendent, Catonsville, Md.,	9.00
Mrs. A. B. Lathrop, San Francisco, Cal.,	4.50
Miss Sarah B. Fay, Boston, Mass.,	22.50
Amount carried forward,	$1,576.48

Amount brought forward,	$1,576.48
Dr. Irving Watson, Concord, N.H.,	7.50
A. G. Warner, Lincoln, Neb.,	11.50
G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York,	9.32
Sundry Sales,	271.66
From F. H. Wines, Secretary Illinois State Board of Public Charities,— 200 copies Proceedings,	165.00
From Andrew E. Elmore, President Wisconsin State Board of Charities and Reform,— 200 copies Proceedings,	165.00
From A. G. Byers, Secretary Ohio Board of State Charities,— 50 copies Proceedings,	56.25
	$2,262.71

Payments.

To George H. Ellis, for printing 2,500 copies of Conference Proceedings for 1889, and for expressage, etc.,	$1,339.00	
Less payment by Mr. Sanborn,	250.00	$1,089.00
For postage and expressage on Reports,		47.25
To George H. Ellis, for printing, etc.,		43.75
For collection fees on sundry drafts and checks,		2.40
To George H. Ellis, for binding two hundred 1888 Reports (muslin),		36.00
To George H. Ellis, for binding three hundred 1888 reports (paper),		21.25
		$1,239.65
Balance,		1,023.06
		$2,262.71

SEVENTEENTH CONFERENCE.

Payments.

For printing, etc., paid by A. Johnson, Secretary,	$43.75
For postage paid by A. Johnson, Secretary,	40.00
For George H. Ellis's bill for blank receipts and orders,	3.50
For printing paid by A. Johnson, Secretary,	67.44
Total,	$154.69

General Balance.

Sixteenth Conference credit balance,	$1,023.06
Seventeenth Conference payments,	154.69
Cash remaining on hand May 20, 1890,	$868.37

By direction of the Executive Committee and at the request of Mr. Sanborn who was elected Treasurer at the last annual meeting of the Conference, I have acted as his successor since he sailed for Europe in February last. In order to cover the interval between the report

made by Mr. Sanborn to the Sixteenth Conference held in San Francisco and the time that I entered upon my duties as Treasurer, I submit the following explanatory letter from him: —

CONCORD, MASS., Feb. 1, 1890.

HON. W. P. LETCHWORTH, Portageville, N.Y.:

Dear Sir,— Understanding that you have been chosen Treasurer of the National Conference of Charities in consequence of my resignation preparatory to an absence in Europe, which will prevent me from meeting with the Conference next May, I transmit herewith the cash-book of the Treasurer with the vouchers, and with the following statement of receipts and expenses since my last annual report.

My balance in bank September 1 was $775.70, since when I have received on the old account $32.00, making a total on that account of $807.70. No payments have been made from this account; but the bank deposit has been increased to $1,000, and the deposit book is now in your hands, as I suppose, having given it in New York to Dr. Hoyt for you.

On the new account, I have received from the San Francisco Local Committee $600, and from subscriptions paid in for the Proceedings of 1889 $43.50. This makes a total of receipts on both accounts of $1,455.45. My expenses during that period, paid wholly from the new account, have been $447.37, of which $250 was an advance to the printer on his bill, $45 was the payment of arrears due to Mrs. Barrows, $43.50 was postage advanced to Mrs. Barrows for sending off the new Proceedings. The other items are for extra printing,— $50.75, done by Mr. Ellis,— for clerk hire $12.87, my own postage $11.00, etc.

My total receipts on both accounts being $1,455.45, my expenses paid $447.37, and the deposit book in your hands calling for $1,000, I owe you as Treasurer the sum of $8.08 to balance the account; and I herewith enclose my check for that amount.

The bill of Mr. Ellis for printing the Proceedings has not yet been rendered, but I may be able to send it to you before I sail on the 5th inst.

Yours truly,

(Signed) F. B. SANBORN.

The following is an inventory of the printed Proceedings of former Conferences remaining on hand: —

Of 1874,	in paper covers,	4 copies
1881,	" " "	1 "
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